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TIMBER
ITS STRENGTH, SEASONING, AND GRADING

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TIMBER

ITS STRENGTH, SEASONING, AND GRADING

BY

HAROLD S. BETTS, M.E. POREST SERVICE, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

FIRST EDITION

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AFFECTIONATELY DEDICATED
TO THE MEMORY OF
MY BROTHER
NORMAN DEWITT BETTS

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PREFACE

This book is intended primarily for engineers, manufacturers and users of lumber and of various special classes of wood material, and students of engineering and forestry. For such structural materials as steel, concrete, etc., there is a wealth of technical information in readily accessible form. Of wood the same can not be said. It is hoped that the present volume will serve to some extent to supply this deficiency.

The data given are derived almost entirely from tests and investigations on the mechanical properties of wood made by the Forest Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Various bulletins, circulars, and papers of the Forest Service, especially those prepared by the author and those with the preparation of which the author was closely concerned, have been drawn upon freely. Most of the diagrams have already appeared in Department of Agriculture publications.

The author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to the members of the Forest Products Laboratory and the Office of Industrial Investigations of the Forest Service for the use made of their publications and for assistance in the preparation of the text, and to thank the various associations for the data they have supplied. Special thanks are due to Mr. Rolf Thelen for his review of the text.

HAROLD S. BETTS.

CONTENTS

	, i	AGE
Prei	FACE	vii
Снар	TER .	
I.	TIMBER RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES	1
II.	THE STRENGTH OF WOOD	10
III.	EFFECT OF MOISTURE AND OF PRESERVATIVE AND CONDITIONING TREATMENTS ON THE STRENGTH OF WOOD. Effect of moisture. Effect of preservative and conditioning treatments. Tests on treated southern yellow pine and Douglas fir. Methods of treatment. Methods of tests. Results of tests. Stringers. Small pieces cut from stringers. Special tests in small pieces. Deductions.	27
IV.	Strength of Wooden Products. Structural timbers. Strength of the principal structural species. Characteristics affecting the strength of timber. Density. Rate of growth. Direction of grain. Moisture.	43
	Sapwood. Defects. Position of pith in cross section. Characteristics affecting decay in timbers. Conditions in the wood itself. Agencies that destroy wood. Relations indicated by tests of structural timbers. The grading of structural timbers. Classification of defects. Various grading rules. Working stresses for structural timbers. Telephone poles. Cross-arms.	

CHAPTER	Page
Packing boxes.	
Compression and drop	
Tests by a revolving of	lrum machine.
The machine.	•
The boxes tested.	·
Deductions from te	sta.
Nailed boxes.	
Wirebound boxes	•
Wooden vehicle parts.	
Hickory buggy spokes	
Oak and hickory bugg	
Maple and hickory wa	
	nd Douglas fir wagon poles.
Douglas fir and south	ern pine cultivator poles.
Deductions from the t	ests of vehicle parts.
V. THE SEASONING OF WOOD .	
Importance of proper se	
Fiber saturation point a	
How wood may be injur	
Checking.	ou in bowoims.
Casehardening.	
Honey combing.	•
Warping.	
Collapse.	· •
Air-seasoning.	
Crossties, poles, and s	awad timbara
Lumber.	awed unibers.
Rules for piling lum	her
Kiln drying.	bei.
Types of kilns.	
Preliminary treatment	ta
The process of drying.	
Storage of dried lumb	
5	
	MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATIONS 162
Principles of lumber grade	
Manufacture and distrib	
Hardwood lumber gradi	<u> </u>
Hardwood association	8.
Comparison of rules.	
Softwood lumber grading	•
	he rules for softwoods.
Description of typical	rules for softwoods.
VII. LUMBER PRODUCED AND USE	D IN THE UNITED STATES 200
Lumber produced by mi	
Lumber used in the man	ufacture of wooden products.
INDEX	225
LILUDIA	

TIMBER:

ITS STRENGTH, SEASONING, AND GRADING

CHAPTER I

TIMBER RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES

FOREST REGIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—TYPES OF FORESTS—ESTIMATES OF STAND—DIAGRAM AND TABLE SHOWING STAND BY STATES AND SPECIES—TIMBER IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE OWNERSHIP—FOREST RENEWAL—SHIFTING CENTERS OF PRODUCTION—CHANGE IN SPECIES FORMING BULK OF LUMBER CUT—FUTURE TIMBER SUPPLY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The forest regions of the United States are shown in Fig. 1. Slightly more than one-half of the supply of timber is in the Pacific Northwest (Washington, Oregon, northern Idaho, western Montana, and northern California); about one-fourth of the total amount is in the Southeast; the remainder, except for a small proportion in the Rocky Mountains, is distributed throughout the former centers of production, the Lake States and the Northeastern States. Five groups of States cover the natural timbered areas of the country: the Northeastern States, the Southern States, the Lake States, the Rocky Mountain States, and the Pacific States. In the forests of the two groups last mentioned practically all of the timber-producing trees are conifers. In the first four groups the timber-producing trees are both conifers and hardwoods.

The first heavy timber cutting in the United States was in the white pine forests of the Northeast, and the original stand of white pine has been largely cut out. The present stand in the northeastern States is mainly spruce, second growth white pine, hemlock, and hardwoods.

In the Southern States there are four different types of forests, broadly distinguished according to their elevation above sea

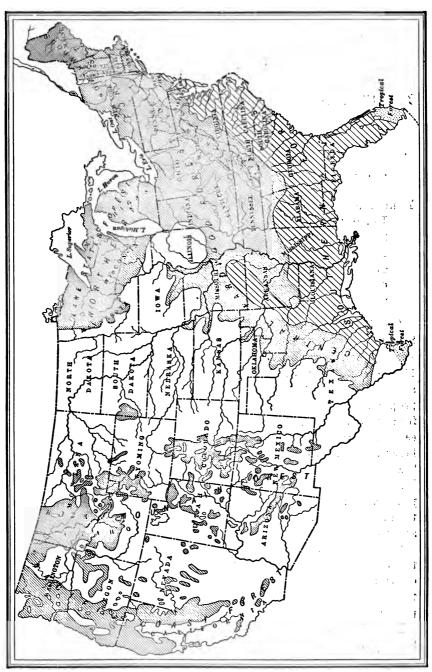


Fig. 1.—Forest regions of the United States.

level. The swamp forests of the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts and the bottom lands of the rivers furnish cypress and hardwoods. The remainder of the coastal plain from Virginia to Texas was originally covered with southern vellow pine. The plateau which encircles the Appalachian Range and the lower part of the mountain region itself support the pure hardwood forest. higher ridges are occupied by conifers, mainly spruce, white pine, and hemlock.

The Lake States still contain large hardwood forests in their southern portions. In the northern part are coniferous forests made up of the rapidly diminishing white pine and of tamarack, cedar, and hemlock.

The principal timber trees of the Rocky Mountain forests are western yellow pine and lodgepole pine.

The Pacific forests, which contain the largest amount of timber still standing in the United States are largely made up of Douglas fir, western hemlock, sugar pine, western yellow pine, redwood, and cedar.

A number of attempts have been made to estimate the amount of standing timber in these various regions. The most authentic estimates are given in Table 1 (p. 5). It will be seen that they vary widely but that in spite of the continued cutting of our timber the more recent estimates of what is left are larger than those made earlier.

The latest estimate gives the total amount of standing timber in the United States suitable for the manufacture of lumber as 2,826 billion board feet. The original stand has been estimated at 5,200 billion board feet. Of the difference, it is probable that about one-third has been destroyed by forest fires, one-third lumbered, and one-third wasted. Figure 2 shows the estimated stand of the principal species in the various States. The size of the squares indicates the amount of standing timber in the various areas, which in some cases include a number

¹Paper presented before the International Engineering Congress, Sept., 1915, "Structural Timber in the United States," by H. S. Betts and W. B. Greeley. The estimate in this paper is taken largely from a report of the Bureau of Corporations of the Department of Commerce on "The Lumber Industry," and the Report of the National Conservation Commission. These estimates include, for the most part, only timber of sawlog size, as determined by current requirements. A figure representing the total forest resources of the United States, including fuel, pulpwood, etc., would be materially larger.

The same was a few

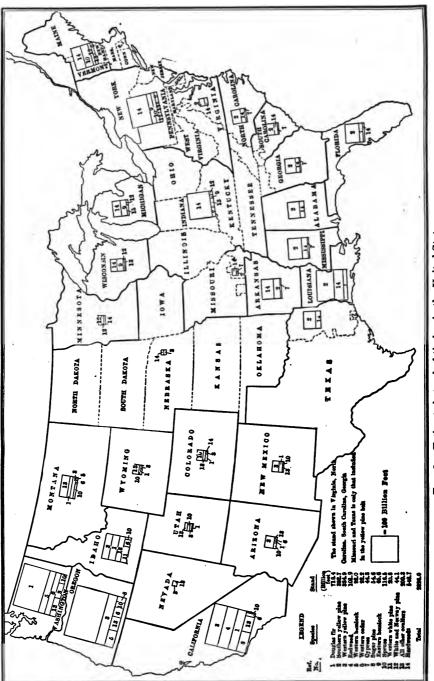


Fig. 2.—Estimated stand of timber in the United States.

TABLE 1.—ESTIMATES OF STUMPAGE IN THE UNITED STATES1

Kind of timber	Census, 1880	Hotchkiss, 1898	Census, 1900	Fernow, 1902	Long, 1903	American Lum- berman, 1905
	M board feet	M board feet	.M board feet	M board feet	M board feet	M board feet
White pine	87,755,000		20,000,000		60,000,000	
Eastern and northern pine.	237,141,500		300,000,000		187,250,000	300,000,000
Eastern spruce	12,265,000 20,165,000		100,000,000		18,221,000 56,571,000	100,000,000
Douglas fir.	:		300,000,000		260,000,000	350,000,000
Cypress.	:		65,000,000		000'000'00"	65,000,000
Red wood.	22,800,000 22,800,000		75,000,000		27.640,000	75,000,000
Sugar pine. Other conifers.	12,500,000		25,000,000			250,000,000 250,000,000
Total conifers Total bardwoods	420,605,100		1,090,000,000		822,682,000	1,570,000,000
Region: Northern States.		100,000,000		200,000,000		
Western States. Pacific States.		1,000,000,000		800,000,000		
Total	856,290,100	1,400,000,000	1,390,000,000	2,000,000,000	822,682,000	1,970,000,000

18ee Forest Service Circular 97 "The Timber Supply of the United States" by R. S. Kellggg. 3 Florids and Alabama only.

T,	BLE 2.	Table 2.—Estimated Stand of Timber in the United States by Species and States	TED STA	ND ON	. Тімве	R IN THE	S UNIT	TED ST.	ATES BY	SPECIE	S AND S	LATES			
***************************************	Doug- las fir	Southern yellow pine	Western yellow pine	Red- wood	Western Western	Western	Cy- press	Sugar	Eastern hemlock	Spruce	Western white pine	White and Nor- way	Other coni- fers	Hard- woods	Total
Dieno.	-	2	3	4	10	9	7	80	6	10	=	12	13	14	
							Sillion f	Billion feet—B.	M.						
Alabama	:-	38.0	66	:	:	-	0.2	:	:	. 6	:	:	: c	18.1	56.3
Arkansas.	1: :	26.9		: : 5			.4.	1: :				: :	: 5	52.2	282
Colorado			1.9			• : • :	: :	: :		13.3		: :	4	0.3	23.4
Connecticut	:		:	:	:	:	i	:	:	:	:	0.7	6.0	0,6	4-
Florida	: :	57.1		::			12.6	: :				: :	: :	4	74.1
Idaho	35.2	31.7	39.1	::	: :	9.1	X0 :	::	: :	2.6	20.8	: :	23.4	6.1.	130.2
Illinois	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	00	5.3	
Iowa	: :		: :	::	: :	: :	::	: :		: :	: :	: :	; :	10	10.4
Kansas	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		4.00	4.6
Louisiana	: :	67.7	: :	::	: :		15.7	::		: :	: :	: :	:	36.4	119.8
Maine. Maryland.	: :	2.4	: :	: :	: :	: :	::	:	1.0	0.0		0.5	 	23.4	20.0
Massachusetts	:		:	:		:		:	9.0	6.0	:	2	0.0	20.7	80
Minnesota	: :		: :	: :		: :	::	::	10.01	: :	: :	15.4	٠	0 80	27.5
Mississippi	:	61.2	:	:	:	:	0.0	:	:	:	:	:	:	27.8	92.7
Montana	15.1	:	13.0	: :	0.5	1.4	:	: :		6.9		: :	31.5	: :	88
Nebraska. Nevada.	: :		2.0	: :			: :	::	: :	: :	: :	: :	0.2	7 .	7.67
New Hampshire	:		:	:		:	:	: :	0.8	5.9		5.7	9.0	8	21.0
New Jersey	7.7		15.5	: :	: :	: :	: :	: :		0.7		: :	0.7	o. :	24.9
New York	:	9.86	:	:				:	10.2	13.3		3.1	7.7	49.4	78.4
North Dakota	: :	2 :		: :		:*:	? :	: :				: :	 : :) : ! :	
	-		-	-	-								-	-	

State	Doug- las fir	Southern yellow pine	Western yellow pine	Red- wood	Western bemlock	Western cedar	Cy- press	Sugar pine	Eastern hemlock	Spruce	Western white pine	White and Nor-	Other coni- fers	Hard- woods	Total
	•			-			Billion f	Billion feet—B. M.	1 .						
Ohio	342.4 342.4 1.2 1.2 233.3	2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 . 2 .	3.6		36.1	50.2	0 0 5		2.0 .8				0.3 0.1 0.1 0.6 0.6 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.4 1.2	13.55 80.33 80.33 13.54 13.55 13.53 13.53	25.00 25
Total 718.4	718.4	392.7	334.9	101.9	92.0	91.2	44.3	54.6	65.6	116.5	8.02	44.1	200.3 548.7	·	2,826.0

of States or parts of States. The squares are divided into numbered areas indicating the amount of the different species. Table 2 gives the estimates in figures for the stand of timber by States and species. While it should be understood that the data in Fig. 2 are estimates, nevertheless every care has been used in their preparation and the diagram at least indicates the relative amounts of the principal species in various parts of the United States.

About 23 per cent. of the standing timber in the United States, or 673 billion feet, is in public ownership. The most important of the public timber lands are the National Forests, which aggregate 155 million acres, the timbered portions of the Indian Reservations, which total 7 million acres, and Forest Reserves in the ownership of various States, which exceed $3\frac{1}{2}$ million acres. On these areas, broadly speaking, the forests are being cut conservatively, and extended by artificial planting, protection from forest fires is provided, and a continuous production of wood under approved forestry methods is assured.

Aside from these public holdings, however, there is, as yet, little prospect of the scientific renewal of the present enormous forest resources of the United States. Lumbering is still largely the exploitation of virgin timberlands by destructive methods and without regard for the future production of wood, a condition forced upon the industry by its unstable market and the fluctuating, often excessively low, value of its product. Exceptions to this general condition are restricted to small parts of the eastern States, where the practice of forestry is made possible, economically, by exceptionally favorable markets for varied wood products.

The manufacture of lumber in the United States is therefore a nomadic industry, shifting from section to section as the supplies of virgin timber are exhausted. Until 1860, the bulk of the lumber was cut from the Alleghany Mountains and northeastern States. For the next thirty years, the vast white and Norway pine stands of the Lake States furnished most of the country's lumber. The industry then, as represented by the greater part of its mill capacity and output, moved into the southern yellow pine belt on the Atlantic and Gulf Seaboard. The production from that section is now at its height, approximately 17 billion feet annually. The total stand of southern yellow pine is estimated at 384 billion feet; hence, twenty years of cutting at the

present rate will exhaust it as a large factor in the American lumber trade. In the meantime, the output of the Pacific Coast, already reaching 8 billion feet of Douglas fir in Oregon and Washington, is steadily climbing; it is simply a question of years before it will exceed that of the lumber regions of the East.

The shifting character of the lumbering industry in the United States is seen in the change from period to period in the species of timber making up the bulk of its commercial product. Southern pine is now in very general use as a structural timber; but the movement of the industry to the Pacific Coast is, in the future, going to replace it to a considerable extent with Douglas fir, just as the yellow pine has replaced Norway pine, spruce, and various hardwoods in many structural uses.

It is roughly estimated that the total annual drain upon the forests of the United States from fires, insects, and lumbering combined, including wood for all uses, is around 100 billion board feet. The annual growth of wood in the forests, most of which is a matter of chance rather than of management or scientific method, is probably not over one-third of this amount. The country is thus evidently drawing upon its forest capital at the rate of 60 to 70 billion feet annually. Long before the present enormous forest resources are eaten up, however, it is more than probable that readjusting economic conditions, particularly higher values for timber and a lower per capita consumption, will reduce the annual drain to an amount not more than the annual growth. With its enormous areas of nonagricultural lands—apparently best suited to the production of timber, in the natural order of things—it is probable that the United States will not only supply its own needs but continue to be a large exporter of timber. Even the quality of the lumber placed upon the market, which is of primary interest to the structural engineer, will change but very gradually as old sources of supply renew their stands of merchantable material. the next thirty or forty years at least, there is no question as to the ability of the United States to furnish high-grade structural timber and lumber from its southern pine and Douglas fir forests to meet almost any demand for such material from any portion of the world.

CHAPTER II

THE STRENGTH OF WOOD

RESULTS OF TESTS ON NORTH AMERICAN WOODS—RELATIONS
INDICATED BY TESTS—METHODS OF TESTS

The term strength in a strict sense means ability to resist stress or force of one kind, as strength in bending, strength in compression, etc. However, strength as applied to wood may have a variety of meanings, depending on the use in mind for the wood. In speaking of the strength of columns or posts in buildings, strength in compression is generally meant. In the case of beams, bending strength is thought of. In wood for axe handles, the toughness or shock-resisting ability and hardness are generally included in the term strength. It is evident that strength may include several properties or a single property, according to the use in mind, and that in comparing woods the property or properties must be specified for a clear understanding.

Tests to determine the mechanical properties of wood, such as bending tests, compression tests, shearing tests, hardness tests, etc., to be strictly comparable must be made on straight-grained pieces free from defects, such as knots, shakes, etc., and in the same condition of seasoning. It would manifestly be misleading to compare the strength of oak containing defects with clear hemlock, or the strength of green ash with dry birch.

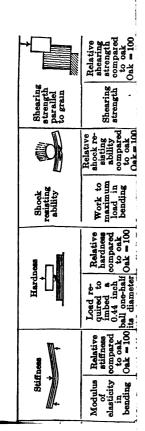
RESULTS OF TESTS ON NORTH AMERICAN WOODS

Table 3 shows the average mechanical properties of 124 different woods grown in the United States. This table can be used to compare the properties of the different woods, to select woods for particular uses, and to establish correct working stresses. It is based on approximately 130,000 tests conducted by the United States Forest Service over a period of about fifteen years. These tests represent about 80 per cent. of all the tests made on woods grown in the United States.

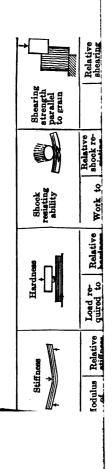
¹See U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin 556, "Mechanical Properties of Woods Grown in the United States," by J. A. Newlin and T. R. C. Wilson, for a more detailed table.

Shook resisting Stiffness/

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PARTE 3

Small clear specimens were used. Each line of the table represents the average of tests made on pieces cut from five typical trees from a single locality.¹ Since there is considerable variation in the strength of wood from individual trees of the same species, the results should be taken as indications rather than as fixed values.

Table 3 gives average values obtained from tests on green material. The values for dry material would be higher, as indicated in the accompanying notes: While it is true that the properties of all species are not changed in the same proportion by drying and that all the properties are not equally affected, nevertheless the converting factors given in the notes will indicate with sufficient accuracy for most practical purposes the strength to be expected in the dry material.

The first column in Table 3 gives the common and botanical names of the species. Since many species have a number of common names, some of which may be used for several species in different parts of the country, the botanical name is needed for positive identification. The locality where grown as shown in the second column of Table 3 should not be given too much weight as an indication of strength or weakness. The influence of region of growth on the properties of wood is generally overemphasized.

The columns numbered 3, 4, and 5 give the weight per cubic foot in three conditions of moisture—green, air dry, and kiln dry. The weight in a green condition was determined at the time the logs were sawed into pieces for test. The various species differ largely as to the wetness of the green wood. The hardwoods as a rule do not exhibit any considerable variation in moisture with the position in the tree. The conifers, on the other hand, show a wide variation in moisture content between the heartwood and sapwood and in some instances between the upper and lower parts of the tree. Tamarack and cypress, however, have a comparatively uniform moisture content throughout the tree. Sugar pine and western larch are frequently very heavy, because of moisture in the former and resin at the butt in the latter. Longleaf pine and some other species have a very low moisture content in the heartwood, while the sapwood is very wet. When this is the case, young thrifty trees with a large propor-

¹ The averages for a few of the species listed in Table 3 are from less than five trees.

tion of sapwood are much heavier than old over-mature trees with a small amount of sapwood. The weight in an air dry condition was determined after the test material had dried to constant weight under shelter. The moisture content under such conditions is generally from 12 to 15 per cent. It varies with the part of the country in which the drying or seasoning takes place. An air dry condition in Douglas, Arizona, would mean a considerably lower moisture condition than an air dry condition was determined by adding 8 per cent. to the weight of the bone dry wood. Of course, kiln dried material may be dried so that it has more or less than 8 per cent. moisture, depending on conditions in the kiln. Eight per cent. is considered an average moisture content for kiln dried wood.

In the determination of the figures for specific gravity based on volume when green (column 6), the test specimens are weighed and measured when green. Their oven dry weight is then computed by dividing the weight when green by one plus the proportion of moisture. Specific gravity based on volume when green is unaffected by the shrinkage of the wood. Specific gravity is the best criterion, except actual strength tests, of the strength of the clear wood of any species.

It has been found that in oak, more than in any other species or group of closely related species, pieces of the same density may vary widely in mechanical properties. Occasionally very dense pieces of oak are for some unknown reason low in strength; but in all species, specimens of low density are invariably weak.

The per cent. of shrinkage that occurs when a piece of wood is dried from a green condition to an oven dry or bone dry condition is shown in the columns numbered 7, 8, and 9. All shrinkages are expressed in percentages of the original or green dimensions. In practice, wood is seldom if ever dried to an oven dry condition. It is generally either kiln dry or air dry. The shrinkage to be expected in drying green material to a kiln dry condition may be taken as 75 per cent. of the shrinkage from a green to a bone dry condition; and the shrinkage from a green to an air dry condition as 50 per cent. or one-half the shrinkage to a bone dry condition. Column 7 gives the shrinkage in volume, omitting longitudinal shrinkage, which is negligible. Columns 8 and 9 give the shrink-

¹ For accurate calculations the swelling from 0 to 8 per cent. moisture and the consequent reduction in specific gravity must be taken into account.

age in the radial and tangential directions respectively. The radial shrinkage is roughly one-half as much as the tangential shrinkage. Radial shrinkage is a measure of the change in width of a quarter-sawed or edge-grain board. If such a board of Douglas fir 10 inches wide were dried so that the moisture was reduced from 30 per cent. to 15 per cent. (green to air dry condition) the decrease in width would be about $\frac{3}{16}$ inch. Tangential shrinkage is a measure of the change in the width of a flat-grain board. In a 10-inch flat-grained Douglas fir board the decrease in width when dried from 30 per cent. to 15 per cent. moisture would amount to about $\frac{5}{16}$ inch.

Columns 10 and 11 show, respectively, the modulus of rupture or breaking strength in bending in pounds per square inch and the strength compared to oak. The modulus of rupture is a measure of the ability of a beam to support a slowly applied load for a short time. Safe working stresses for carefully selected structural timbers, such as floor joists, stringers, etc., with all exceptionally light pieces excluded, subjected to bending in dry interior construction, are about one-sixth the modulus of rupture values given in Table 3. The values given are for green wood. The modulus of rupture for air dry wood is about 50 per cent. greater than that for green. For kiln dry wood it is about 100 per cent. greater, or twice the green value. This increase in strength due to drying does not apply to comparatively large structural timbers, in which the defects induced in the drying process, such as checks and shakes, frequently offset any increase in the strength of the wood itself.

Columns 12 and 13 give, respectively, the crushing strength for green wood in pounds per square inch and the strength compared to oak. For air dry wood the crushing strength is about 50 per cent. greater than for the green, and for kiln dry wood the strength is about 100 per cent. greater, or twice the strength of the green. The maximum crushing strength is a measure of the ability of a short block to sustain a slowly applied load. It is important in calculating the strength of short columns. A safe working stress is about three-tenths the crushing strength as given.¹

Columns 14 and 15 give the strength in compression perpendicular to the grain and the relative strength compared to oak. Fiber stress at elastic limit is the value given. It

¹ In dry interior construction, and with light weight pieces excluded.

represents the greatest stress that can be applied without injury and is used in computing the proper bearing area for beams, railroad ties, etc. Two-thirds of the fiber stress given in Table 3 may be used as a safe stress in dry interior construction.

Columns 16 and 17 show the modulus of elasticity in bending in 1000 pounds units and as compared to oak. The modulus of elasticity is a measure of stiffness and is used in calculating the deflection of beams. A high modulus of elasticity means a high degree of stiffness with but little deflection. One-half the values given in the table are recommended for use in the design of structures on account of variations in the quality of timber and inaccuracies in workmanship in fitting together the various parts.

Columns 18 and 19 show the hardness as indicated by the load required to imbed a steel ball in the various species of wood and as compared to oak. Hardness is important in flooring, handles of various kinds, paving blocks, vehicle material, etc. There appears to be no consistent difference between the hardness on a radial surface and on a tangential surface, and both values are averaged and tabulated as "side hardness." End hardness (not given) is usually slightly greater than side hardness.

Columns 20 and 21 show the work to maximum load in bending in inch pounds per cubic inch and as compared to oak. The work to maximum load is a measure of the shock-resisting ability, or combined strength and toughness. It is important in estimating the relative fitness of woods for uses where they are subjected to sudden loads as in wagon or automobile spokes or axe handles. Hickory and osage orange are woods that rank especially high in shock-resisting ability.

Columns 22 and 23 show the shearing strength parallel to the grain and the shearing strength compared to oak. Shearing strength is important in beams which are likely to fail by shearing lengthwise so that the upper half slides on the lower half when the beam bends.

RELATIONS INDICATED BY TESTS

- 1. The density or dry weight of wood is a measure of its strength.
- 2. Each annual growth ring is made up of a comparatively heavy band of summerwood and a lighter band of springwood. The greater the proportion of summerwood, the greater the weight and strength of the timber.

- 3. No differences in mechanical properties due to a change from sap to heart have been found. As a general rule, in species which show a variation in the mechanical properties with position in cross sections, there is a certain age when the best wood is produced. In such species the age and thrift of the tree determine whether heart or sap is the better. For example, in a young, thrifty hickory the sapwood is usually the better; while in a large, over-mature tree of the same species the heartwood is the better.
- 4. Exceedingly rapid or slow growth in conifers has usually been found to be attended by lack of density and inferior mechanical properties.
- 5. The effect of location of growth on the nature of the timber is very complex. Variations attributed to difference in locality of growth are frequently exaggerated. These variations are generally apparent in the difference in density of the wood.
- . 6. Trees growing close together and apparently under the same conditions occasionally show a difference in their mechanical properties that can not be entirely accounted for by the difference in density. Whether this difference is due to the ancestry of the tree or some other cause, such as soil conditions, is not yet known.
- 7. The strength of small, clear pieces is greatly increased by seasoning. In large timbers, the increased strength attending a loss of moisture is mostly offset by checks and other defects developed during the seasoning process, and therefore, under most conditions it is not considered advisable to anticipate any added strength due to seasoning.

METHODS OF TEST

The methods of test¹ used in obtaining the data in Table 3 are shown in Figs. 3 to 10 inclusive.² With each figure is a

¹ For a more detailed description of the methods of test used by the Forest Service see Forest Service Circular 38, "Instructions to Engineers of Timber Tests," revised, Forest Service Bulletin 108, "Tests of Structural Timbers," by McGarvey Cline and A. L. Heim, and a paper presented at the 6th Congress of the International Association for Testing Materials, "Forest Service Investigations of American Woods with Special Reference to Investigations of Mechanical Properties," by McGarvey Cline.

² Several methods of testing wood not referred to in Table 3 are given for the sake of completeness.

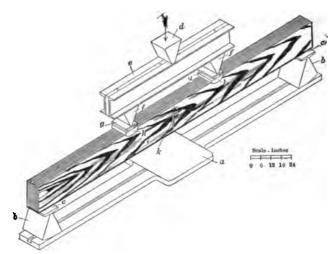


Fig. 3.—Bending test, $8'' \times 16'' \times 16'$ bridge stringer.

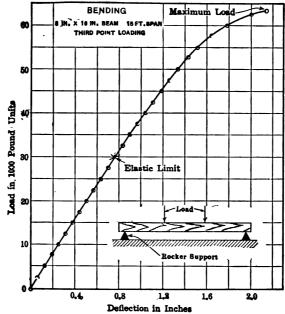


Fig. 3a.—Stress strain diagram for bending test.

Figs. 3 and 3a.—Method of testing large beams in bending and resulting diagram.

DESCRIPTION OF FIGS. 3 AND 3a.

Specimen.—Contains defects common in material bought on the market. The commercial grade is determined by the number, size, and position of these defects. Bridge stringer, $8'' \times 16'' \times 16'$.

Set Up.—Specimen rests on rocker supports (b), with bearing plates (c) between the supports and the specimen. The supports rest on extension arms bolted to the weighing platform (a) of a universal testing machine.

Load is applied continuously at the two points (h, h) each one-third length of span from end supports. Load is applied by the machine head at (d) and transmitted through the double channel beam (e) and through the roller bearings (g, h) to the specimen. Speed of machine 0.25 inch per minute.

Deformation.—Deflections at center are measured by a fine wire (i) kept taut by a spring stretched between two nails driven midway between the top and bottom faces of the specimen vertically above the supports. The wire crosses a steel scale (k) attached to the specimen. The movement of the wire with reference to the scale shows the amount of bending.

Results Calculated.—(a) Fiber stress at elastic limit. This is the greatest stress that can occur in a beam loaded with an external load from which it will recover without permanent deflection.

(b) Modulus of rupture. This is the greatest computed stress in a beam loaded with a breaking load.

(c) Modulus of elasticity. This is a factor computed from the relation between load and deflection within the elastic limit, and represents the stiffness of the wood fiber.

(d) Longitudinal shear. This is the stress tending to split the beam lengthwise along its neutral plane when under maximum load.

(e) Work to maximum load. This is the energy or work required to bend the beam to its deflection at maximum load. It is a measure of a combination of strength and toughness or shock-resisting ability.

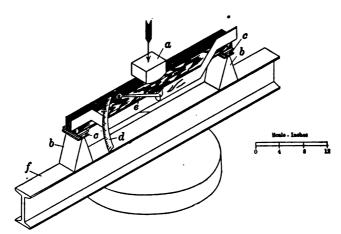


Fig. 4.—Method of testing small beams in bending.

Specimen.—Clear, straight-grained, $2'' \times 2'' \times 30''$.

Set Up.—1. I-beam, (f), with two knife-edge supports, $(b\ b)$, 28 inches apart, placed on weighing platform of universal testing machine.

2. Specimen rests on knife-edge supports, $(b \ b)$, with roller bearings, $(c \ c)$, interposed between the supports and the specimen.

3. Load applied continuously at center of span through the bearing block (a); speed of machine 0.105 inch per minute.

Deformation.—Deflections at center measured by means of special deflectometer, $(d \ e)$. The deflectometer rests upon small nails driven vertically above the knife-edge supports midway between the top and bottom faces of the specimen. The indicator, (e), is fastened by means of a thin strip of steel to a small nail on the neutral axis midway between the supports. As the beam deflects, the indicator drops by gravity, indicating on the scale, (d), the amount of deflection to the nearest one-thousandth of an inch. Deflections are observed for every 50 pounds increment of load.

Results Calculated.—(a) Fiber stress at elastic limit.

- (b) Modulus of rupture.
- (c) Modulus of elasticity.
- (d) Work to maximum load.

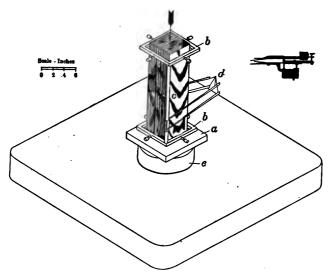


Fig. 5.—Compression parallel to grain.

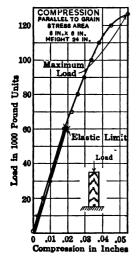


Fig. 5a.—Stress strain diagram for compression test.

Figs. 5 and 5a. Method of making a test in compression parallel to grain, and resulting diagram.

Specimen.—Clear, straight-grained, $2'' \times 2'' \times 8''$;

ends carefully squared. Set Up—1. Yokes, $(b \ b)$, placed on specimens 6 inches apart, held in place by thin, pointed screws.

2. Specimen rests on ball and socket bearing, (a e); load applied continuously; speed of machine 0.024 inch per minute; care should be taken to have the ends of the specimen cut smooth and true so that the load is distributed uniformly over the ends.

Deformation.—Deformation between yokes measured by means of Olsen compressometer. The arms of the compressometer are brought in contact with the yokes, $(b \ b)$, by means of the spacing bars, $(c \ c)$.

Results Calculated.—(a) Fiber stress at elastic limit.

(b) Maximum crushing strength.

(c) Modulus of elasticity.

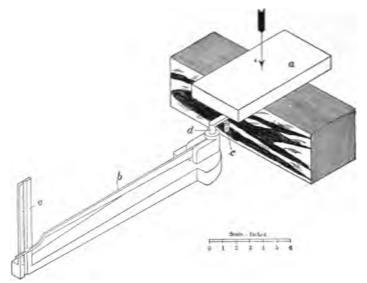


Fig. 6.—Compression perpendicular to grain.

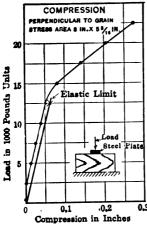


Fig. 6a.—Stress strain diagram for compression test.

Figs. 6 and 6a.—Method of making a test in compression perpendicular to grain, and resulting diagram.

Specimen.—Clear, straight-grained, $2'' \times 2'' \times 6''$.

Set Up.—Specimen placed on weighing platform of universal testing machine. Steel plate, (a), 2 inches wide placed on top of specimen. Load applied to the specimen through the plate, (a); speed of machine 0.024 inch per minute.

Deformation.—Deformations measured with deflectometer, (d, b, e), the bearing end of the deflectometer coming in contact with steel plate, (a).

Results Calculated.—Crushing strength at elastic limit. The load at elastic limit is determined by means of load-deformation diagram.

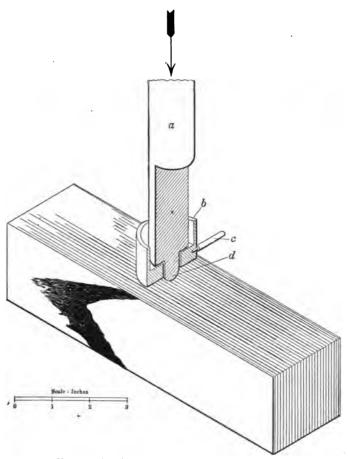


Fig. 7.—Method of making test for hardness.

Specimen.—Clear, straight-grained, $2'' \times 2'' \times 6''$.

Set Up.—Steel bar, (a), held rigidly in crosshead of testing machine. The end of bar, (a), is a hemisphere, having a diameter of 0.444 inch. During test, washer, (b), is kept moving by operator by means of handle, (c). When end of bar, (a), is forced into the wood, the distance equal to radius of the sphere, the washer, (b), becomes fixed. The load at the instant the washer becomes fixed is taken as a measure of the hardness. The hardness test is made on radial and tangential faces as well as on the ends of the specimen.

Results Calculated.—Load in pounds to imbed sphere .44 inch diameter, a distance equal to its radius.

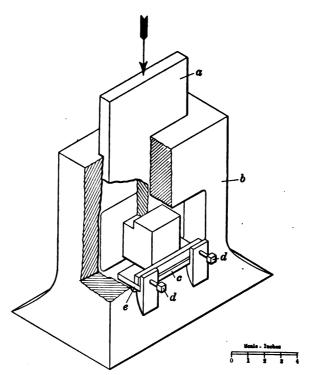


Fig. 8.—Method of making shearing test.

Specimen.—Clear, straight-grained, cut so as to have a projecting shoulder. Set Up.—1. Specimen placed in shearing tool so that a movable plate rests upon projecting shoulder.

2. Specimen rests upon plate, (e), and is held in a vertical position by means of plate, (c), and screws, (d, d).

3. Shearing tool rests upon base of universal testing machine; load is applied to specimen through plate, (a); the load is increased gradually; speed of machine 0.015 inch per minute, until projecting part of specimen is sheared off.

Results Calculated.—Maximum shearing strength in pounds per square inch.

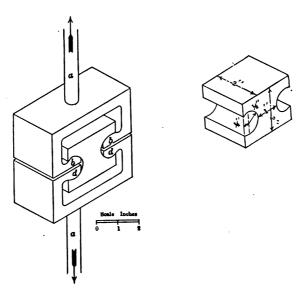


Fig. 9.—Method of making test in tension at right angles to grain. Specimen $2'' \times 2'' \times 2^{1/2}''$.

Specimen.—(See Figure.) Set Up.—1. Holders, $(b\ b)$, and $(d,\ d)$, fastened to fixed and movable crossheads of universal testing machine by means of rods, (a a), which are connected to holders with ball and socket joints.

2. Specimen placed in holders, $(b \ b)$, and $(d \ d)$, so that bearing of holders or specimen is uniform over entire length of specimen.

3. Load applied gradually, speed of machine 0.25 inch per minute. Results Calculated.—Maximum tensile strength in pounds per square inch.

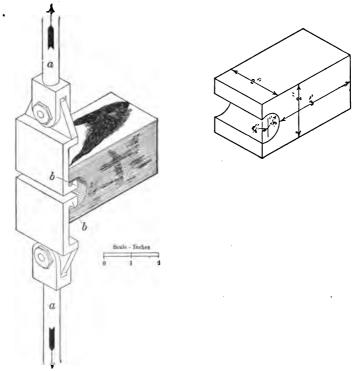


Fig. 10.-Method of making cleavability test.

Specimen.—(See Figure.)

Set Up.—1. Holders, $(b\ b)$, fastened to fixed and movable crossheads of machine by rods, $(a\ a.)$

2. Specimen placed so that one end rests snugly against holders so that distance from contact point to line of maximum stress is constant ($\frac{1}{2}$ inch).

3. Load applied gradually; speed of machine 0.25 inch per minute.

Results Calculated.—Maximum load divided by width of specimen in inches.

brief description of the method and meaning of the values derived from the tests. In addition to these values moisture determinations and specific gravity determinations are made on each test specimen and the specimen is carefully described. Typical stress-strain diagrams for three kinds of tests—bending, compression parallel to grain, and compression perpendicular to grain—are shown.

METHOD OF DETERMINING MOISTURE CONTENT OF WOOD

1. Saw a section 1 inch thick from the piece of lumber whose moisture is to be determined. The section should be taken

at least 12 inches from an end as the wood close to the ends is liable to contain less moisture than the average for the whole stick, due to end drying.

- 2. Remove splinters from section and weigh (W). An accuracy of 1 per cent. is sufficient. Mark weight on section.
- 3. Dry section in oven at 100° C. (212° F.) until weight (W_1) is constant. If an oven is not available, the section may be dried on hot steam pipes until it ceases to lose weight.
- 4. The first weight (W) minus the dry weight (W_1) represents the weight of water dried out of the wood. Divide this loss by the dry weight and multiply by 100. The result is the moisture content (M) of the wood expressed in per cent. of the dry weight.

$$M = \frac{W - W_1}{W_1} \times 100$$

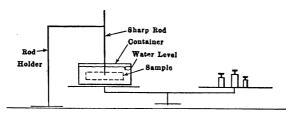


Fig. 11.—Method of determining volume by displacement of water.

METHOD OF DETERMINING SPECIFIC GRAVITY OF WOOD SPECIMENS

- 1. Cut typical samples from specimen containing from 5 to 25 cubic inches.
- 2. Find volume (V) of sample in cubic centimeters by measurements or by displacement method (see below).
- 3. Dry sample in oven at 212° F. (100° C.) until weight is constant.
 - 4. Find weight (W) of sample in grams.
- 5. Divide weight of sample by volume of sample $\frac{W}{V} = \text{specific gravity.}^1$

¹ This is specific gravity based on volume at test. To find specific gravity based on oven dry volume weigh sample after drying and divide by oven dry volume. This will be larger than specific gravity based on volume with more moisture, since sample shrinks in drying.

METHOD OF DETERMINING VOLUME BY DISPLACEMENT OF WATER (See Fig. 11)

Place a container partly filled with water on one pan of a balance scale and bring to balance. Stick the sample whose volume is to be determined on one end of a sharp metal rod. Dip sample in paraffine and place under water in container. Adjust the rod in holder so that the sample is held under water but does not touch container. Balance scales again. The operation of weighing under water should be carried out rapidly so as to prevent absorption of water by the sample. Since a cubic centimeter of water weighs one gram the weight in grams required to balance scales after the sample is submerged is the volume of the sample in cubic centimeters.

CHAPTER III

EFFECT OF MOISTURE AND OF PRESERVATIVE AND CONDITIONING TREATMENTS ON THE STRENGTH OF WOOD

EFFECT OF MOISTURE

Moisture exists in wood in two conditions—absorbed in the cell walls, and filling the various open spaces or cavities in the cells. The water in the open spaces, "free" water, has no effect on the strength. If a piece of green wood is dried, it first loses the free water; and until this is gone and the water in the cell walls begins to grow less the strength remains the same. The reduction of moisture in the cell walls causes an increase in strength. relation between moisture and bending strength, crushing strength, and stiffness for western hemlock is shown in Fig. 12. It may be seen that above about 30 per cent. moisture there is no change in strength, while if the moisture is reduced below 35 per cent. the strength increases rapidly. The effect of moisture on stiffness is comparatively slight. Moisture strength diagrams for all the more common structural species have the same general form as that for western hemlock. Fig. 13 shows the relation between moisture and crushing strength for a number of woods.

When the cell walls have absorbed all the moisture they can the wood is said to be at the fiber saturation point. If the wood takes up more moisture, the additional moisture will be contained in the form of free water in the cell cavities. The fiber saturation point for various species appears to vary between 20 and 35 per cent. moisture.

Figure 14 shows the results of crushing tests on longleaf pine, eastern spruce, and chestnut, including pieces varying from an oven dry to a soaked condition. The oven dry pieces have practically no moisture and had the greatest crushing load. They were also the stiffest as shown by the angle between the horizontal compression scale and the line marked "oven dry" on the diagram. The greater this angle the stiffer is the piece.

The kiln dry pieces, with slightly more moisture than the oven dry pieces, rank next in strength and stiffness followed by several air dried pieces with increasing moisture and lower strength.

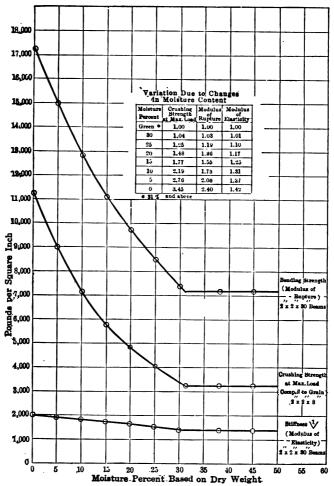


Fig. 12.—Effect of varying degrees of moisture upon the strength and stiffness of small clear pieces of western hemlock.

The pieces that were dried and then allowed to reabsorb moisture in a humid atmosphere and the pieces that were dried and then resoaked were the weakest and least stiff of any.

It should be noted in the case of specimens dried so as to cause

¹Read scale in 1,000 pounds per square inch.

an uneven distribution of moisture throughout the cross section that the resulting moisture strength curve will be above the curve for evenly dried specimens, and will be gradually rounded off from the wettest to the driest condition. Figure 15 shows the strength of case hardened or unevenly dried pieces as compared with pieces dried uniformly throughout their cross section. This

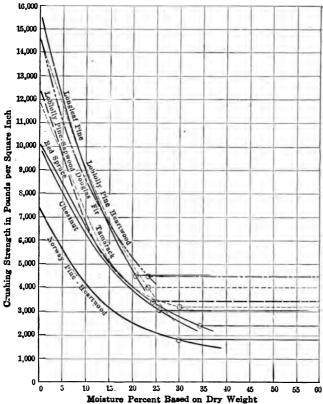


Fig. 13.—Relation between the crushing strength in compression parallel to grain, and the moisture content for several woods.

condition of uneven dryness will generally be true of structural material. The specimens used in Fig. 15 were somewhat case-hardened, as a result of the surface being more rapidly seasoned than the interior; and on this account the diagram is rounded instead of making a sharper angle at the fiber saturation point. The strength of small, clear pieces of wood when dried from a green to a kiln dry condition is frequently doubled.

In considering the effect of moisture on wood, it should be kept in mind that a considerable increase in strength due to drying is generally found only in small pieces. This is due to the difficulty of drying larger pieces through to the center and to the weakening effect of checks which frequently occur in drying.

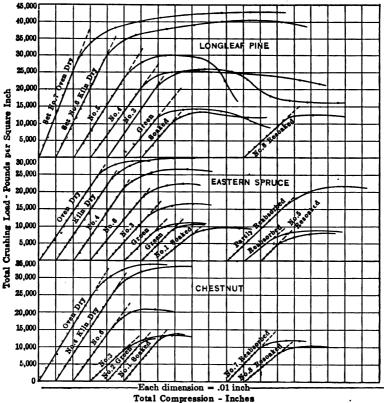


Fig. 14.—Relation between amount of compression and crushing load in pieces varying from an oven-dry to a soaked condition. (Compression parallel to grain—pieces $1\frac{1}{2}$ " $\times 1\frac{1}{2}$ " $\times 5\frac{3}{4}$ ").

EFFECT OF PRESERVATIVE AND CONDITIONING TREATMENTS

Wood-preserving processes may be divided into two classes—superficial processes and impregnation processes. In superficial processes, the liquid preservative is applied to the wood by a brush or by dipping; in impregnation processes the preservative is forced into the wood under pressure. The wood to be treated

(ties, piling, structural timber, etc.) is placed in large steel cylinders; the cylinders are then tightly closed, and the preservative is run in through pipes. When the cylinders are full of preservative, pressure is applied and the preservative is thus forced into the wood. Sometimes it is difficult to force a sufficient amount of preservative into the timber under treatment and in such cases the wood is steamed before treatment to render it more permeable. Boiling in the preservative is also practiced. The impregnation processes, the effect of which is considered here, are those in which steaming and boiling are used.

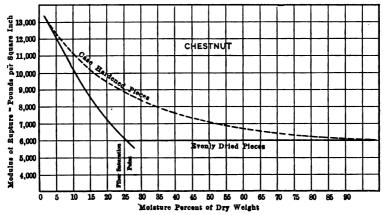


Fig. 15.—Effect of casehardening upon the form of the moisture-strength curve in bending tests. The upper curve is from casehardened specimens, the lower curve from uniformly dried specimens.

The preservative generally used is creosote, an oil derived from the distillation of coal tar.

TESTS ON TREATED SOUTHERN YELLOW PINE AND DOUGLAS FIR

A series of tests was conducted by the Forest Service over a period of several years to find the effect of commercial creosote treatments on the strength of southern yellow pine and Douglas fir stringers. To show this effect a comparison was made between the strength of treated and untreated stringers of the same size and quality. The stringers of both species were 8×16 inches in section and from 28 to 32 feet in length. The sticks were

¹ For a full description of the various processes, see "The Preservation of Structural Timber," by H. F. Weiss.

sorted in pairs with the object of having the sticks in each pair as much alike as possible. At the time of treatment each stick was cut into two stringers of equal length, making four test stringers in each group, two butt cuts and two second or top cuts. In order to neutralize the variation in strength between butt and top cuts the butt ends were treated in one group and the top ends in the next, and so on. Figure 16 shows the method of cutting the test material. One stringer in each group was treated while green and tested; one was tested green; one was treated, seasoned, and tested; and one was seasoned and tested. In this way the relative strength of the treated and natural material, both green and after seasoning, was shown.

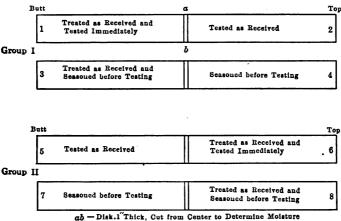


Fig. 16.—Method of cutting and marking test material.

The southern yellow pine stringers were of two kinds, longleaf pine and loblolly pine. The longleaf pine stringers were high grade timber and the loblolly pine stringers less valuable. The latter contained about 30 per cent. sapwood. The Douglas fir stringers included three grades. It is customary to use only timbers of the two higher grades in permanent structures. Two processes of treatment were used with Douglas fir, the "boiling" process and the "steaming" process.

Methods of Treatment.—The preservative treatments to which the three species of structural timber were subjected were briefly as follows:

¹ Select, Merchantable, and Common as classified by the grading rules of the West Coast Lumber Manufacturers' Association, now the West Coast Lumbermen's Association.

Loblolly Pine.¹—Steamed for four hours under 29 pounds pressure; vacuum of 26 inches applied for one hour; cylinder filled with creosote and pressure of 125 pounds applied for four and one-half hours at a temperature of 140° F.; vacuum of 23½ inches applied for one-fourth hour. Absorption of oil, 13½ pounds per cubic foot of wood.

Longleaf Pine.²—Steamed for six hours at 30 pounds pressure; vacuum of 26 inches applied for one hour; cylinder filled with creosote and pressure of 128 pounds applied for five and one-half hours at a temperature of 140° F. Absorption, 12¾ pounds per cubic foot of wood.

Douglas Fir.²—Boiling process. Boiled in creosote, for twenty-one and three fourths hours at temperature of 215° F., loss of moisture during boiling, 1.2 pounds per cubic foot of wood; pressure raised from 0 to 145 pounds per square inch in five and three-fourths hours; temperature about 190° F. Absorption of oil, 11.2 pounds per cubic foot of wood, as determined by measuring tank readings.

Douglas Fir.—Steaming Process. Steamed at 90 pounds pressure per square inch for four and one-fourth hours; temperature about 325° F.; vacuum of 20 inches applied for eighteen and one-half hours; temperature 220° F. at end of period; cylinder filled with oil and pressure raised from 0 to maximum pressure of 140 pounds per square inch; pressure period, two and one-fourth hours, temperature of the oil, about 208° F. Absorption, 31 pounds per cubic foot of wood, as figured from increase in original weight of stringers. The stringers were not weighed after steaming, so that the probable loss can not be taken into account in computing the absorption.

Methods of Test.—The stringers were tested in bending by supporting them at the ends and applying the load at two points located one-third of the span from each of the end supports. This system corresponds closely to conditions of practice. In testing the beams the load was applied gradually and a record kept of the deflections corresponding to regular load increments.³

After failure occurred in the stringers, small pieces 2×2 inches in section and 30 inches in length were cut from the unbroken portions. These pieces were selected free from defects and with straight grain. Their location in a cross section of the stringer was noted, so that data could be secured on the relative strength of the inner and outer portions. The tests of small pieces included bending, compression parallel to grain, compression perpendicular to grain, and shearing.

Results of Tests.—The results of the tests on the natural and treated stringers are shown in Table 4.4 Table 5 gives the

- ¹ Run made March 4, 1908.
- ²Run made March 5, 1908.
- ³ For method of test, see Chapter II.
- ⁴The tests on Douglas fir treated by the steaming process and seasoned are not yet completed.

Table 4.—Strength and Stiffness of Natural and Treated Stringers

	TVI		OI RE	HIDN		1111	SEN	OF INA	ABLE 4. TIRENGIH AND DIIFFNESS OF INGIORAL AND I AMAIGUES	THE CAN	Contract	T PEN CE				
Species and condition	Rings per inch	inch	Summe (per	Summerwood (per cent.)	Sapwood (per cent. volume)	ood ent. ne)	Moi (per (Moisture (per cent.)	Modulu ture (j per per	Modulus of rup- ture (pounds per square inch)	Modulus of elasticity (1000 pounds per square inch)	lus of (1000 is per inch)	Fiber stress at elastic limi (pounds per square inch)	stress to limit is per inch)	Shearing stree at maximum load (pounds per square inch	Shearing strees at maximum load (pounds per square inch)
	ż	Ę	ż	Ę	ż	H	ż	Ę	ż	Ħ	Ä.	T.	ż	Ŧ.	ż	Ę
artially air dry, 10 tests— Maximum Minimum Minimum	14.2 17.0 10.8	14.0 15.5 11.3	88.88 28.00 8.00	8.7.8 8.6.6.	2120	21°	27.6 29.1 25.9	26.2 20.3 1.1	5,151 5,575 4,150	5,132 5,830 4,600	1,409 1,617 1,235	1,275 1,462 1,113	3,346 4,180 2,390	2,898 3,970 2,050	408 438 325	309 452 357
Average Maximum Minimum	19.2 23.0 17.3	18.0 19.7 16.3	33.3 33.3 33.3 35.3	41.6 44.0 38.7	3211	272	19.0 19.6 18.4	23.4 21.1	6,466 8,600 4,280	6,376 7,620 5,260	1,561 1,767 1,236	1,471	4,950 6,040 3,450	4,762 5,530 3,740	499 658 320	499 595 408
artially air dry, 10 tests—Average Maximum Minimum	8.5.4 8.6.8	4.39	43.2 52.5 36.8	43.2 46.0 35.8	စာရွာဝ	35	35.7 54.1 24.1	49.4 70.3 36.0	4,858 6,440 3,680	4,150 4,960 3,390	1,296 1,515 1,089	1,155	2,738 3,250 2,160	2,080 2,340 1,830	402 535 301	339 409 275
Maximum Minimum	8.01 3.38	12.3 3.7	34.5 40.0 33.0	37.2 30.3	047 87	50.0	18.2 18.8 17.5	23.8 29.6 18.7	6,392 7,680 4,501	6,270 6,270 4,360	1,534 1,596 1,430	1.297 1,367 1,238	4,806 5,430 3,910	3,808 4,580 3,520	507 624 362	437 509 361
Souling process— Green, 40 tests— Maximum Minnum.	11.0 17.7 4.7	11.2 19.0 5.4	45.2 57.0 35.0	45.4 61.0 37.0	°::	· • : :	288.6 28.5 3.5 3.5	28.5 32.8 24.3	5,690 7,590 4,120	3,820 5,540 2,090	1,569 2,070 2,115	1,542 2,001 1,028	3,980 5,340 1,950	2,980 4,850 1,370	381 514 277	253 364 137
Average Maximum Minimum teaming process	11.5 18.5 6.6	11.3 19.6 6.2	39.5 52.0 30.0	38.2 47.0 31.0	• : :	°::	15.3 17.8 13.4	19.5 23.0 16.4	6,240 9,440 3,990	3,860 4,930 2,510	1,809 2,402 1,400	1,560 2,062 1,252	4,560 6,630 3,750	2,840 4,010 1,360	407 615 256	254 324 165
Green, 30 tests— Average Maximum Minimum. Air dry—tests—	14.7 22.2 5.9	14.0 20.9 5.1	36.6 53.8 26.3	34.2 50.0 27.5	° : :	•::	37.5 45.9 32.4	33.0 20.8 30.3	5,430 6,710 4,280	3,540 5,740 2,310	1,657	1,412	3,740 4,560 2,730	2,370 3,930 1,490	366 454 291	237 384 150
Average Maximum Minimum	:::		:::	: : :	:::	:::	:::								: : :	:::

Table 5.—Strength and Stiffness of Small Fieces—Natural and Treated—Cut from the Inside and Outside from Dortions of Londleaf Pine, Lobloclit Pine, and Dougles Fir Stringers	NESS OF LO	OF SMA	LL PI	ECES- s, Lob	L PIECES—NATUI PINE, LOBLOLLY	TRAL AND PINE, AN	TREATE D DOUGL	IND TREATED—CUT FROM THE AND DOUGLAS FIR STRINGERS	FROM TE TRINGER	IE INSII	E AND (TOTSIDE
Species, condition, and locality	N of	Number of tests	Mois (per	Moisture (per cent.)	Rings	per inch	Modulus I spanod)	Modulus of rupture (pounds per square inch)	Fiber selastic (pound	Fiber stress at elastic limit (pounds per square inch)	Modulus of ticity (100 pounds p square in	of elas- (1000 is per inch)
	ż	F.	z.	Ŧ.	ż	T.	Ä.	Ŧ	z.	Ŧ.	z.	F.
Longleaf pine: Partially air dry— All. Outside: Inside:	844	29 24 5	21.5 21.0 24.6	:::	19.2 19.6 14.6	18.3 14.4	9,507 9,455 9,978	9,036 9,046 8,870	5,623 5,587 5,953	5,365 5,376 5,088	1,493 1,485 1,581	1,434 1,428 1,464
All dry— All dry— Outside Tuside Loblolly pine:	23 5	23 17 6	12.8 13.0 12.6	: : :	19.9 18.5 18.5	19.6 18.1 14.2	13,520 13,109 14,378	11,418 11,208 11,495	8,070 8,060 8,153	6,824 6,855 9,543	1,663 1,641 1,714	1,508 1,489 1,527
Partially air dry— All Outside Inside	30 6 6	858	20.3 19.8 22.2	:::	6.9 4.6 9.9	8.8.7. 4.9.7.	8,605 8,599 8,592	6,571 6,221 8,148	5,109 5,120 5,010	3,531 3,294 4,560	1,350 1,339 1,365	1,104 1,086 1,289
All ary— All Outside. Douglas fr. Boiling proces—	0.42 9	26 21 5	12.0 11.8	:::	51.7	7.7.7 4.68	12,491 12,382 13,003	12,182 12,122 12,157	7,502 7,434 7,713	7,611 7,644 7,145	1,605 1,607 1,595	1,603 1,609 1,550
Green— All Outside Inside	477 844	38 119 18	30.1 29.6 30.6	27.5	10.7 11.7 9.6	12.6 13.9 11.4	7,923 8,041 7,805	6,216 6,862 5,571	4,450 4,407 4,493	3,434 3,897 2,971	1,595 1,617 1,583	1,48 0 1,570 1,401
Affary Af	3338	722 72	15.6 14.8 16.4	: : :	13.2 14.1 12.2	13.1 13.6 12.6	10,608 10,929 10,287	6,598 6,721 6,475	6,546 6,953 6,138	4,003 4,021 3,985	1,778 1,787 1,770	1,62 4 1,617 1,632
All. Outside. Air div—	:::	:::	:::	: : :	:::	::::	: : :		:::	:::	::::	
All. Outside. Inside.	:::	:::	: : :	: : :	:::	:::				::::		::::

results of tests on small pieces cut from the uninjured portions of the stringers after test.

Stringers.—The values for modulus of rupture (bending strength) and modulus of elasticity (stiffness) for the natural and treated stringers in each group are compared in Figs. 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21 for loblolly pine, longleaf pine, and Douglas fir. The diagrams were made by first plotting the values for modulus of rupture of the natural beams (solid lines) arranged

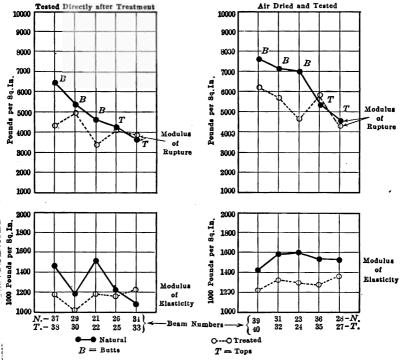


Fig. 17.—Effect of preservative treatment on the strength and stiffness of loblolly-pine stringers treated partially air dry.

from the highest to the lowest, beginning with the highest value on the left. The modulus of rupture of the treated half of the test pieces (dotted lines) was then plotted on the same vertical line as the untreated pieces. The modulus of rupture values for the natural beams are marked (B) or (T) to show whether they are butts or tops. The values for modulus of elasticity for the same beams are plotted in the lower part of the diagrams. All values for the same beam are in the same vertical line.

Loblolly Pine.—Figure 17 shows that when the butts were treated the breaking strength of the butts and tops of the loblolly pine stringers fell rather close together, while when the tops were treated the breaking strength values were much farther apart. This shows a weakening due to the treatment even considering the lower breaking strength of the top stringers. The tests are too few to form a basis for definite conclusions. The

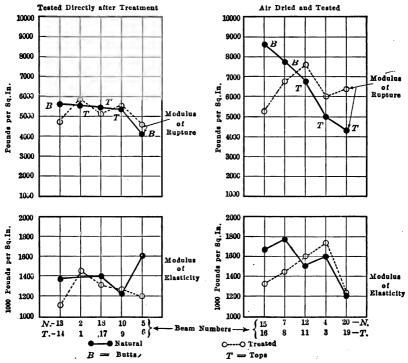


Fig. 18.—Effect of preservative treatment on the strength and stiffness of longleaf-pine stringers treated partially air dry.

amount of weakening due to the treatment was probably not above 17 per cent. The stiffness shows a greater weakening due to treatment than does the breaking strength. Both treated and untreated stringers showed a strength about 30 per cent. greater in the seasoned material than in the material tested directly after treatment.

Longleaf Pine.—Figure 18 shows that the breaking strength of the longleaf pine stringers was apparently unaffected by the

treatment used. There was a slight reduction in the stiffness. In the air seasoned beams the untreated butt cuts were higher instrength and stiffness than the treated top cuts; but on the other hand, the untreated top cuts fell below the treated butts in strength and stiffness in nearly every case. In the stringers tested immediately after treatment, there is less variation between the treated and untreated material.

Douglas Fir.—Figures 19 and 20 indicate a marked weakening in the breaking strength of the Douglas fir stringers treated by the so-called "boiling" process as used in this case. The average

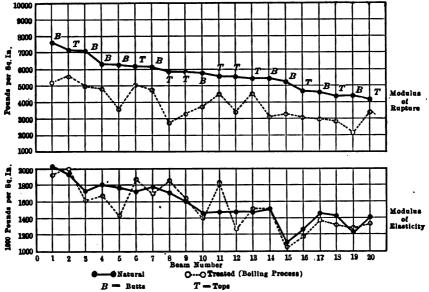


Fig. 19.—Effect of "boiling process" of preservative treatment on the strength and stiffness of Douglas-fir stringers treated green and tested without seasoning.

breaking strength of the treated stringers tested green and after seasoning is 33 per cent. and 39 per cent., respectively, less than the average strength of the natural stringers. In the green material no weakening is apparent in the stiffness. The seasoned stringers, however, show a falling off in stiffness in the treated material.

Figure 21 shows the strength and stiffness of green Douglas fir treated by the so-called "steaming" process and similar natural stringers. The breaking strength was considerably

less in the treated material (35 per cent.), and the stiffness was slightly less.

Small Pieces Cut from Stringers.—Table 5 shows that the sticks cut from the treated loblolly and longleaf pine stringers are in general weaker than those cut from the natural stringers, but the difference is slight except for partially air dry loblolly pine. Part of the apparent loss in strength of the treated material may be ascribed to its higher moisture content indicated by determinations for moisture in various parts of the cross sections of the treated timbers of these two species.

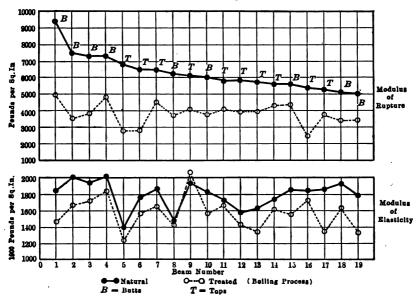


Fig. 20.—Effect of "boiling process" of preservative treatment on the strength and stiffness of Douglas-fir stringers treated green, air seasoned and tested.

In the Douglas fir treated by the boiling process and tested green, the average (Table 5) for the outside sticks shows a decrease in strength over the natural, with but little difference in stiffness. As compared with the natural sticks, the treated sticks cut from the interior of the main beams showed a more marked drop in strength and stiffness. The air dry material in all cases showed a decided decrease in the strength of the treated sticks. The decrease in stiffness was less marked. Part of this decrease may be accounted for by the higher moisture content of the treated pieces.

Special Tests on Small Pieces.—Table 6 gives a condensed summary of the results of a series of tests on small clear specimens (2 by 2 inches in section) of Douglas fir, longleaf pine, and shortleaf pine made to study the effect of the various steps used in the treatment of the full sized stringers. Eight sticks were subjected to each of the processes shown in Table 6. One-half of the sticks were tested shortly after treatment and one-

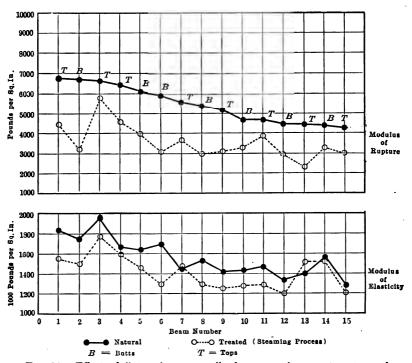


Fig. 21.—Effect of "steaming process" of preservative treatment on the strength and stiffness of Douglas-fir stringers treated green and tested without seasoning.

half after they had been piled in the laboratory long enough (5 months) to reach a practically constant weight.

All the processes caused a reduction in the strength values of the unseasoned material of the three species with, in most cases, a recovery after seasoning, except in the tension tests. In these the weakening in the unseasoned material remained after seasoning in all processes but the creosote bath (next to last column).

The shrinkage measurements on the steamed material, with

Table 6.—Effect of Various Treatments on Small, Clear Sticks (Results Expressed! in Per Cent. of Strength

			OF UNTREATED MATERIAL)	SATED IN	(ATERIAL)					
	Steamed at 20 pounds 5 hours	at 20 5 hours	Steamed at 20 5 hours pounds 5 hours; 26 1 hour inch vacuum 1 hour pounds	at 20 lours; 26- lm 1 hour	Steamed at 5 hours; 26-i 1 hour; cr pounds pre	20 pounds nch vacuum eosote, 120 æsure, 4½ rs	Creceote by mospheric 200° F.,	ath at at- pressure,	Steamed at 20 pounds Creegote bath at at-pheric pressure, 200° F., 5 hours; 26-inch vacuum Creegote bath at at-pheric pressure, 200° F., 120 mospheric pressure, 27 hours; creegote at 145 pounds pressure, 180° F., 27 hours pounds pressure, 180° F., hours	n at atmos- re, 200° F., mote at 145 ure, 180° F.,
	Unsea- soned	Air	Unsea- soned	Air	Unsea- soned	Air	Unsea- soned	Air	Unsea- soned	Air
Bending: Modulus of rupture—	72	86		ê	G	90	8	6	90	8
Longlest pine. Shortlest pine. Moduline of alasticite.	7334	100	72:	. 86	88 %	85 104	96		828	93 109
Douglas freeseasts Douglas freeseasts Shortlesf pine Compression	87 94 84	100	92	100	95 91 96	98 99 105	97	105	93 96 96	99 108 100
Maximum crushing strength— Douglas fir. Longlest pine. Shortlest pine.	68 70 70	102	76	88	83 83 83	97 76 104	. 83 . 89	102	0088	112 87 109
Douglas fir. Longlesf pine. Shortlesf pine.	77 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 1	93 118 107	74	96	74 73 80	100	91	118	86 74 90	125 115 115
A classification of the classification of th	57 42 70	69 47 81	71	64	48 60 71	57	95	116	63 61 79	117 67 88
Testment Douglas fr. Longlest pine Shorthest pine Shrinkage in cross section during	0.13 0.33 0.33	:::	0.83		3.34 0.08 0.92	: : :	0.73	: : :	9.33 0.66 0.75	•
treatment and seasoning— Douglas for. Longlest pine. Shortlest pine.		8 58 10.64 10.47	: : :	8.35		7.39 6.18 5.94	: : :	7.46		11.31 7.90 5.73

¹Shrinkage given in per centa. of areas when first measured. Corresponding shrinkage of untreated material, green to air-dry condition; Douglas fir, 6.40; longlest pine, 8.48; shortlest pine, 7.29.

² Increase in volume.

and without vacuum, showed less than 1 per cent. decrease in volume during treatment for all the species. After seasoning, a shrinkage of from 8.4 per cent. for Douglas fir to 10.6 per cent. for longleaf pine was recorded. Steaming and vacuum followed by creosoting showed a somewhat higher shrinkage for Douglas fir than for the pines, both in the unseasoned and air dry pieces. The creosote bath had little influence on the shrinkage, the reduction after seasoning corresponding closely to the shrinkage of untreated pieces. The pressure treatment following the creosote bath showed a somewhat higher shrinkage for Douglas fir than for longleaf or shortleaf pine.

While the series of special tests does not explain the weakening in the Douglas fir stringers, it indicates that the trouble has to do with stresses in the full sized stringers, probably caused by rapid and unequal shrinkage during the process.

Deductions.—1. Timber may be very materially weakened by preservative processes.

- 2. Creosote in itself does not appear to weaken timber.
- 3. A preservative process which will seriously injure one timber may have little or no effect on the strength of another.
- 4. A comparison of the effect of a preservative process on the strength of different species should not be made, unless it is the common or best adapted process for all the species compared.
- 5. The same treatment given to a timber of a particular species may have a different effect upon different pieces of that species, depending upon the form of the timber used, its size, and its condition when treated.

CHAPTÈR IV

STRENGTH OF WOODEN PRODUCTS

STRUCTURAL TIMBERS-STRENGTH OF THE PRINCIPAL STRUC-TURAL SPECIES—CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING THE STRENGTH OF TIMBERS—CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING DECAY TIMBERS-RELATIONS INDICATED BY TESTS-THE GRAD-STRUCTURAL TIMBERS—CLASSIFICATION DEFECTS—EXAMPLES OF COMMERCIAL SPECIFICATIONS GRADING Rules For STRUCTURAL TIMBERS-Working Stresses—Telephone Poles—Cross Arms— PACKING Boxes—Compression AND DROP TESTS-Drum Machine-Wooden TESTS BY A REVOLVING PARTS—SPOKES—SHAFTS—AXLES—POLES—DE-DUCTIONS FROM TESTS

The value of certain qualities in wood depends on the use to which the wood is put. Properties which are absolutely essential for one use may be of no particular importance for another. Tests on wooden products serve to show not only the suitability of different species for certain uses but also the strongest forms of the product.

The following tests on structural timbers, telegraph poles, cross arms, packing boxes, and vehicle parts were made to compare proposed substitutes with material considered standard or to determine the possibility of improving standard forms so as to obtain a more satisfactory product with the same or a smaller amount of material. In all tests of this kind the conditions met with in commercial use were duplicated as nearly as possible.

STRUCTURAL TIMBERS

STRENGTH OF THE PRINCIPAL STRUCTURAL SPECIES

Tests on the strength of structural timbers furnish the basis (1) for determining the proper working stresses and factors of safety to use in the design of timber structures, (2) for studying

TABLE 7. —AVERAGE STRENGTH VALUES OF GREEN STRUCTURAL TIMBERS WITH ORDINARY DEFECTS AND SMALL

	SPECIM	ENS OF GR	SPECIMENS OF GREEN MATERIAL WITHOUT DEFECTS	HAL WITHOU	T DEFECTS			
			Bending			Compression parallel to grain	Compression perpendicular to grain	Shear
Species	Weight per cubic foot, oven dry (pounds)	Rings per inch	Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch	Modulus of rupture, pounds per square inch	Modulus of elasticity, 1,000 pounds per square inch	Crushing strength at maximum load, pounds per square inch	Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch	Shearing strength, pounds per square inch
Cypress: Structural sizes Small specimens	32.2	25.0	4,430	7,110	1,378	3,960	548	818
Structural sizes Small specimens Eastern hemlock:	28.0	11.0	3,968 5,227	5,983 8,280	1,517	3,495 4,030	570	765
Structural sizes Small specimens Loblolly pine	28.0	20.5	4,155	6,685	1,124	3,270	497	877
Structural sizes Small specimens	31.0	5.9	3,040 4,100	5,08 4 7,870	1,387	2,940 3,240	200	930
Structural sizes Small specimens	34.1	16.7 16.5	4,015 5,270	6,191 8,330	1,600	4,285	495 570	1,048
Structural sizes. Small specimens. Red springs	25.0	13.7	2,492	3,864 5,173	1,1 3 3 960	2,555 2,504	::	589
Structural sizes. Small specimens.	25.5	21.9 21.3	2,394	3,566 5,900	1,180	2,750	310	758
Structural sizes Small specimens	22.0	18.8	3,760 4,750	4,472 6,980	1,042	3,882	434 569	742

			Bending			Compression parallel to grain	Compression perpendicular to grain	Shear
Species	Weight per cubic foot, oven dry (pounds)	Rings per inch	Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch	Modulus of rupture, pounds per square inch	Modulus of elasticity, 1,000 pounds per square inch	Crushing strength at maximum load, pounds per square inch	Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch	Shearing strength, pounds per square inch
Shortleaf pine: Structural sizes. Franchise Specimens	30.0	12.1	3,237 4,350	5,548 7,710	1,473	3,435 3,570	351 400	704
Structural sizes. Sanal specimens	30.0	14.0	2,813 3,875	4,556 6,820	1,220	3,230 3,190	::	
Structural sizes. Small specimens.	27.0	15.6	3,516 4,406	5,296 7,294	1,445	3,355 3,392	434	630
Structural sizes. Shall specimens.	28.0	24.3	3,324 4,274	4,948 7,251	1,301	3.510 3.696	456	700
Structural sizes. Small specimens	30.8 25.6	15.6 14.9	2,769 3,156	4,560 5,831	1,243 1,178	2,830 2,896	299	
Structural sizes.	21.3	9.3	2,239 3,090	3,288	1,081 998	2,370	270	651

the relation of the physical characteristics and defects of timber to its strength, and (3) for preparing grading rules and specifications for various forms of structural timbers.

Table 7 shows average strength values for a number of the principal structural species.¹ The averages for the bending tests are the results of tests on unseasoned timbers ranging from 4×10 inches to 8×16 inches in cross section for the structural sizes, and of tests on small $(2''\times2''\times30'')$ specimens (cut from large beams after test) free from defects.

Many publications dealing with timber give results of tests made only on small, clear, seasoned specimens. Such values may be from one and one-half to two times as high as similar values from tests on large timbers and joists containing the ordinary defects. In applying to commercial material values derived from tests care should be taken to see that the commercial timber is of the same quality as the test timber or that the proper adjustments are made in the test values so that they may accurately represent the material in question.

The two qualities of greatest value in the wood of structural timber are strength and durability. In order properly to select material for a given use, a knowledge of the influence which the visible characteristics of timber have on these two qualities is necessary.

CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING THE STRENGTH OF TIMBER

The characteristics to be considered in judging the strength of timber are density of wood, direction of grain, rate of growth, moisture condition, proportion of sapwood, size and condition of defects, such as knots, checks, and shakes, and the position of the pith in the cross section.

Density.—The strength, hardness, shock-resisting ability and stiffness of wood vary with its weight when the wood is in the form of small, clear, straight-grained pieces of the same moisture content. The relation of bending strength to dry weight for a single species (longleaf pine) is shown in Fig. 22. In this figure each point represents a single test, the location of the point being determined by the bending strength (modulus of rupture) and

¹ For a more complete discussion see Forest Service Bulletin 108, "Tests of Structural Timbers."

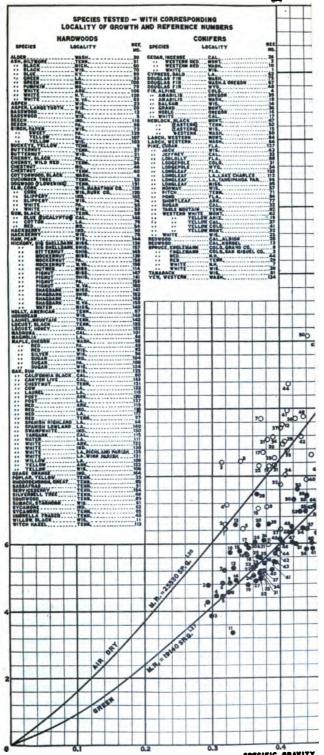


Fig. 23.—Relation between bending strength and

. . the dry weight (specific gravity) of the piece tested. The greater strength of the heavier pieces is evident.

The relation of bending strength to dry weight for 113 different species is shown in Fig. 23. In this figure each small circle represents an average of about 60 tests made on five typical trees cut in one locality. The circles are located according to the average bending strength (modulus of rupture) and the average specific gravity of each group of tests. The solid circles

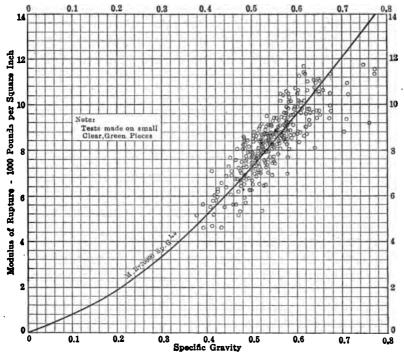


Fig. 22.—Relation between bending strength and dry weight for longleaf pine.

are for green material and the open circles for air dry material. The numbers show the species and locality of growth. For example, the solid circle 3 shows the bending strength of green Engelmann spruce cut in San Miguel County, Colorado, and the open circle 3 shows the bending strength of air dry pieces cut from the same trees. Figure 23 shows that the heavier species tested had the greater average bending strength. From Figs. 22 and 23 it is evident that as the weight increases the strength increases

both in the case of pieces all cut from the same kind of wood and in the case of average values of many different kinds of wood.

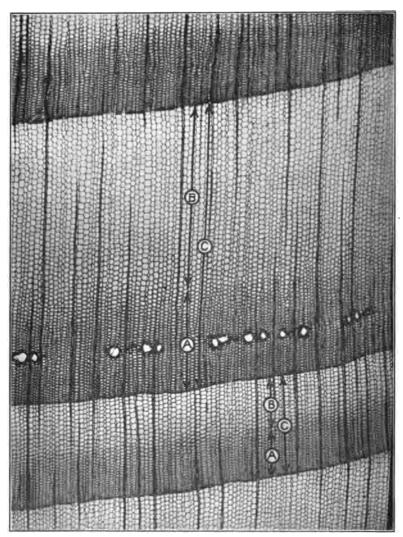


Fig. 24.—Douglas fir (magnified 50 times). A, summerwood; B, springwood; C, annual ring—one year's growth. Note porous springwood and denser summerwood.

In order to make use of this fact in grading timber, some way of estimating density from a visual inspection is necessary.

The character of the annual rings as shown on a cross section of the ends of a stick of timber furnishes a means of judging its strength. Wood is made up of concentric rings of growth. Each ring consists of two parts, springwood and summerwood: The springwood, as its name indicates, is formed first, and in the woods commonly used for structural purposes is the lighter-

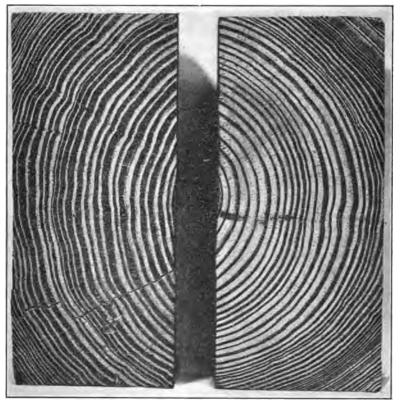


Fig. 25.—Cross section of loblolly-pine beams. Note different proportions of summerwood.

colored, softer part of the ring. The summerwood is built up later and is darker and denser (see Fig. 24). In certain woods the change from springwood to summerwood is distinctly marked, so that the proportion of summerwood in an annual ring or in a cross section can be closely estimated. Figure 25 shows the well-defined bands of summerwood and springwood in the ends of two loblolly pine beams. Summerwood is considerably heavier

than springwood. A number of tests on small pieces of summerwood and springwood cut from wide-ringed loblolly pine showed a density and strength about twice as great in the summerwood as in the springwood. The proportion of summerwood in a cross section of a stick is therefore a means of estimating its density and strength. It should be remembered that density is the basic factor governing strength and that proportion of summerwood as a satisfactory indicator of strength is dependent on the difference in density of the two parts of the annual ring and on the closeness with which these parts can be differentiated.

Rate of Growth.—The rate of growth is generally spoken of in rings per inch. The average rate of growth is determined by counting the annual rings on a radial line on the cross section and dividing the number of rings by the length of the line in inches. In the case of some of the species tested it appears that there is a rate of growth which is generally associated with the greatest density and greatest strength. For a number of the species tested this is:

	Ring	s per inch
Douglas fir		24
Shortleaf pine		12
Loblolly pine		6
Western larch		18
Western hemlock		14
Tamarack		20
Norway pine		18
Redwood		30
Longleaf pine		10

However, density is the basic requisite for strength, and too much importance should not be given to the rates of growth as an indication of satisfactory material.

Abnormal rates of growth, either fast or slow, in structural timbers are frequently associated with material of low density, and timber with such growth should be regarded with suspicion. Very fast-grown wide-ringed timber is also comparatively difficult to work and frequently wears irregularly. The use of nails, spikes, and screws in wide-ringed timber may give trouble on account of the width of the alternate hard and soft bands in each annual ring.

Direction of Grain.—By grain is often meant the lines formed by cutting the rings of annual growth. If a stick is cut from a log in such a way that these lines run diagonally from one edge of the stick to the other instead of parallel to the edges, the load that it will carry as a beam will be considerably reduced, and, moreover, failure will be more complete when it occurs.

There is, however, another kind of cross grain, known as spiral grain, which is more difficult to detect than that just described, but which also weakens the timber and may cause unexpected complete failure; that is, a break in which the stick snaps in pieces. The wood of the conifers may be considered as built up mainly of elongated cells running lengthwise with the trunk, with a much smaller proportion of cells in small bundles located at right angles to

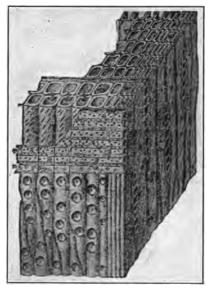


Fig. 26.—Wood of spruce (magnified 100 times). Note the vertical tubes or cells of wood fibers and the bundles of horizontal fibers lying between them.

them and lying radially. These small bundles of cells are termed pith rays. They are formed much as if a knife blade had been thrust radially into the tree crowding between the vertical cells. Figure 26 shows a magnified piece of wood with the vertical cells and pith rays. The cross sections of the pith rays appear on a magnified tangential or flat-grained face of timber as figures tapering on each end, with the long axis vertical, and on a radial section as light-colored bands. In oak, for example, the pith rays are very much in evidence, and form the figures in quartered material. In the conifers, however, the pith rays are not gener-

ally noticeable. Not infrequently the cells of which a tree is built up follow a spiral course around the pith instead of lying vertically. Figure 27 shows a tree of this kind. In such trees the cross sections of the pith rays are also inclined or lie diagonally instead of vertically and form an indication of spiral grain. It is quite possible for a piece to be straight-grained, so far as the annual rings are concerned, and still to have a spiral grain. Spiral grain is often indicated in seasoned material by the diagonal direction of fine surface checks which occur at the pith rays. In



Fig. 27.—Tree with spiral grain.

Fig. 28 are shown three views of a piece of spruce with spiral grain. The danger of using such material where strength is necessary is evident. Failure due to spiral grain in a bridge stringer is shown in Fig. 29. Splitting a block of wood radially will show whether or not it has spiral grain.

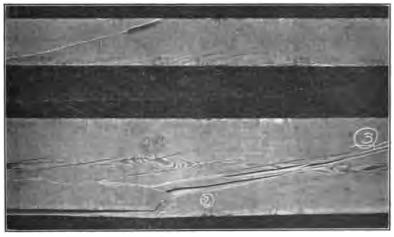
Diagonal grain or spiral grain with an inclination of more than 1 in 20 to the edge of a beam is apt to cause failure and should not be allowed in high-grade material.

Moisture.—The effect of moisture on strength is very marked in small clear pieces of wood. In Fig. 23 the strength of the green material

averages about three-quarters that of the air-dry material, and small kiln dry pieces are frequently over twice as strong as similar green ones. In large pieces, however, the effect of moisture is much less. Under present methods of seasoning structural material, any increase in the strength of the wood fiber is frequently offset by the weakening effect of checks and shakes induced in the process, so that the strength of large seasoned beams is, on the average, increased little over that of green beams. In Table 8, values for green and air-seasoned material for a number of species are compared. The green material in each case is taken as having a value of 1.00 and the corresponding value for the air-seasoned material is given. The tests were made by dividing the shipments of each species into two parts, one of which was tested green and the other after



Fig. 28.—Spiral grain in Sitka spruce.



Frg. 29.—Failure due to spiral grain. Views of side and bottom of central portion of $8'' \times 16'' \times 16'$ stringer after test. It will be noted that the lines of failure do not follow the visible grain (lines formed by cutting the annual rings).

TABLE 8.—RATIOS OF AVERAGE STRENGTH VALUES FOR AIR-SEASONED MATERIAL TO THOSE FOR GREEN MATERIAL

Shearing strength, pounds per square inch Shear .8 1.9 .08 1.29 1.77 1.32 1.47 1.01 1.61 Compression perpendicular to grain Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch 2.26 1.12 1.31 : 1.09 : 1.31 : : 1.21 : Modulus of elasticity, 1,000 pounds per square inch 2.20 0.98 1.36 \vdots : Compression parallel to grain Crushing strength at maximum load, pounds per square inch 1.46 28 28.3 1.66 3.01 (Values for green material = 1.00) Crushing strength at elastic limit, pounds per square inch 1.66 1.47 : : : : Horisontal shear, pounds per square inch 1.10 1.18 1.30 1.15 1.33 : : : : 1.07 : Modulus of elasticity, 1,000 pounds per square inch 98. 1.07 1.25 Bending Modulus of rupture, pounds per square inch $\frac{1.18}{1.42}$ 1.19 1.06 $\frac{1.19}{1.57}$ $\frac{1.21}{2.26}$ 1.2 0.941.57 Fiber stress at elastic limit, pounds per square inch $\frac{0.92}{1.00}$ 1.05 1.25 1.63 Structural sizes.
Structural sizes.
Small specimens.
Structural sizes.
Small specimens.
Small specimens. Structural sizes.
Small specimens
Western larch:
Structural sizes.
Small specimens
Lobiolly pine:
Structural sizes.
Small specimens
Tamara ck:
Structural sizes.
Structural sizes. Norway pine: Structural sises...... Small specimens..... Small specimens.... Structural sizes.. Species Longleaf pine Redwood:

thorough air seasoning. While the results show that, in general, all of the mechanical properties are increased by seasoning, this increase is irregular in the structural sizes. In the small sizes an increase in strength would of course be expected. It has been found that if the moisture content of a seasoned timber is increased it loses strength and that if it is thoroughly soaked with

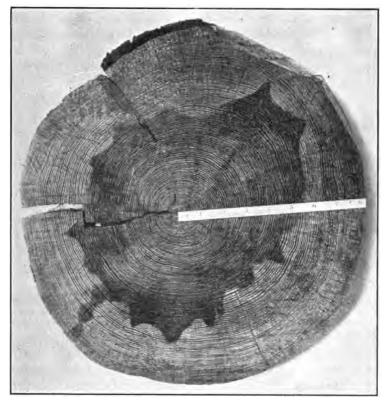


Fig. 30.—Cross section of longleaf-pine tree showing sapwood and heartwood.

water it will be weaker than when green. It is hardly safe in designing timber structures to depend upon an increase in strength in timbers due to seasoning.

Sapwood.—The sapwood forms the layer between the bark and the heartwood. Sapwood is generally considerably lighter in color than the heartwood in the species commonly used for structural purposes. Figure 30 shows the heartwood and sapwood in a cross section of longleaf pine. As a tree grows, the sapwood

is continually changing into heartwood and new sapwood is constantly being added at the circumference. All of the heartwood in a mature tree was at one time sapwood. The proportion of sapwood as such has no bearing on the strength of a stick of timber. If a tree is cut at a time when it is forming its densest wood so that this dense wood is still sapwood, pieces cut from the sapwood will be the stronger. If, on the other hand, it is cut later in life when the wood being formed as sapwood is not so dense and the denser wood has changed to heartwood, then pieces cut from the heartwood will be the stronger. In mature coniferous trees the sapwood is generally weaker than the heartwood.

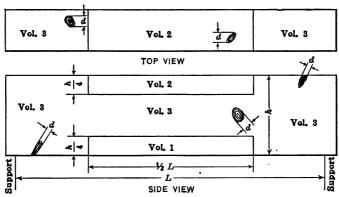


Fig. 31.—Division of beam into volumes for location of knots. Measurement of knots on horizontal and vertical face of beam. d = diameter of knot.

Defects.—Knots, checks, and shakes are the most common defects affecting strength. In timber for use as beams, the influence of knots on strength is largely a matter of location. Figure 31 shows a method of dividing a beam into three volumes with reference to the location of knots. Numerous tests have shown that knots occurring in Volume 1, which occupies the lower quarter of the central half of the beam, have considerably more weakening effect than similar knots occurring in other volumes. Loose or rotten knots are of course more harmful than those closely knit with the surrounding wood. A comparatively small knot situated near enough to the lower edge of a beam to turn the grain off is more harmful than a larger knot so placed as to allow the grain to be continuous in passing. In some cases knots near the neutral plane (the horizontal plane passing through the

center of a beam) may act as pins and tend to strengthen the beam against failure in horizontal shear or splitting from end to end along the center. Figure 32 is a view of a beam that has failed in horizontal shear. In a series of tests¹ on loblolly pine beams those with knots in Volume 1 had about 75 per cent. of the strength of sticks with knots in the remaining portions. Tests on short columns² of Douglas fir, western hemlock, and



Fig. 32.—View of beam at completion of test showing failure in horizontal shear. Note that beam has split along center so that top half projects above lower half at end. AA, support for beam on weighing platform. BB, points where load is applied. C, head of screw press. D, straining beam. EE, fine wire stretched along center of beam. F, scale used with wire for measuring deflection of beam under load.

western larch indicate that the crushing strength of material with knots is less than that of clear material. The decrease in strength was approximately 5 per cent. in columns with knots $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or less in diameter, from 10 to 15 per cent. in columns with knots between $\frac{1}{2}$ inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, and from 15 to 20 per cent. in columns with knots over $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter.

Checks are caused by the stresses set up in seasoning. Structural timber in large sizes is difficult to season without more or

¹ See Forest Service Circular 164, "Properties and Uses of Southern Pines."

² See Forest Service Bulletin 108, "Tests of Structural Timbers."

less checking, even under favorable conditions; frequently it is so exposed as to cause the surface to dry much more rapidly than moisture can be transmitted from the inner portions to the surface. The outer portions dry and shrink while the center is still wet, and checking results.

A shake is a separation between two annual rings. Generally the separation occurs in only part of the ring, but sometimes it is complete. Shakes are ascribed to the bending action of wind on the standing tree. They are frequently not visible in green timber; but show up later during seasoning.

Both checks and shakes weaken beams in their ability to resist horizontal shear in proportion as they affect the area of the beam near the neutral axis. When a load is placed on a beam supported at the ends, the beam has a tendency to shear or split lengthwise along the center of the vertical side and form two beams, each one-half the size of the original beam. If the beam is already partially separated along the center by checks and shakes, it is obvious that it will be more easily split along this plane than if the area is intact.

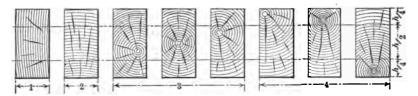
In the case of a stringer, 8×16 inches in section, tested in bending over a 15-foot span, failure may occur by tension or tearing apart of the fibers in the lower part of the beam, by compression or crushing in the upper part, or by shearing along the neutral axis. The results of shearing tests on small, clear pieces show that, under the conditions given, failure would always occur in tension or compression long before the beam could reach its maximum shearing stress, provided the shear-resisting area was intact. In tests on commercial material, however, horizontal shear is a common form of failure, which is due to the fact that the area that resists shear is frequently weakened by checks and A comparison of the stresses obtained from tests on 8-inch by 16-inch by 16-foot stringers and from those in small clear pieces shows that the shear-resisting area in commercial material is frequently reduced about 50 per cent. by checks and shakes. Table 9 shows the calculated shearing stresses developed in structural beams of a number of species.

Table 9 separates the timbers tested into three groups: (1) Those which failed first in horizontal shear, (2) those which had secondary failures in horizontal shear, and (3) those which did not fail in horizontal shear. The number of specimens falling into each group is given as a percentage of the total number

	TAB	ILE S	.—C	TABLE 9.—CALCULATED SHEARING STRESSES DEVELOPED IN STRUCTURAL BEAMS	SHE/	ARING STRI	E88E8	DEVELOP	ED IN	STRUCTUR	tal B	EAMB		
	Total number of tests	al Ser sts		First failure by shear	by she	78	4 20	Shear following other failure	other	failure		No shear failure	r failw	e e
Species.				Green		Dry .		Green		Dry		Green		Dry .
	Green Dry	Drs	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch	Per cent. of total	Average calculated shear, pounds per square inch
Longlesf pine.	191	91	5 20	353	80,00	272 221	23	374	0	294	23	218	44	286
Shortlesf pine. Western larch.	62 82	253	<u>181</u>	333 588 588 788	4 6	340	91	327	817	418 370	22	276 268	4 6	340 287
Tamarack	389		10,	288 288 288	888	299 209 404	7 m 00	356 263 281	508	546 438	84	528 528 528 528 528 528 528	929	283 417
Redwood	82 2	20	64	302 232	00	27.8	19°	218	0	250	88 25	283 208	88	304

of specimens tested. It will be noticed that of the seasoned timbers from 6 to 56 per cent. failed first in shear, and that in Douglas fir, loblolly pine, and western hemlock a considerable proportion had secondary failures in horizontal shear. These figures indicate strongly the need of taking horizontal shear into consideration in the design of timbers tructures. They also show the necessity of using stresses much lower than those indicated by tests on small clear specimens. In short, deep beams special attention should be given to horizontal shear.

Position of Pith in Cross Section.—Timbers containing the pith or center of the tree are frequently spoken of as "boxheart." When the timber was tested in bending, failure occurred more



- 1 Pith not in Cross-Section Rings Vertical
- 2 " " Rings Horizontal
- 3 Pith within Center Half of Cross-Section
- 4- " Upper or Lower Quarters of Cross-Section

Fig. 33.—Various positions of pith in cross section.

frequently by longitudinal shear when the pith was in the center half of the cross section than when it was in the upper or the lower quarter. Vertical grained structural material was also more apt to fail by longitudinal shear than material with the grain horizontal. In material with the pith near the center of the cross section or with the grain vertical, radial checks are apparently able to exert their greatest influence in weakening the area that resists longitudinal shear. Figure 33 shows the various kinds of cross section that may occur with reference to the pith.

CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING DECAY IN TIMBER

Conditions in the Wood Itself.—The characteristics to which special attention is given in judging the durability of any one wood are the proportion of sapwood, the moisture condition, the amount of resin, and the general condition of the piece with

reference to sap stain, which may indicate incipient decay, and with reference to defects which often form the starting places for Marked variation from the characteristic color often indicates incipient decay, especially when it gives a streaked or spotted effect. Some of the blue stains noticeable in sapwood are not injurious to the timber; but if abnormal color is associated with punkiness or softness noticeable by pricking the wood with a knife blade, it is highly probable that there is decay. records of the durability of various woods under the same conditions will give the best criterion of their relative decay-resisting ability for a certain use. Little is known of the reason why certain woods are more durable than others. In the case of mechanical properties, such as strength, stiffness, and hardness, practically all of them are dependent on the density or dry weight of the wood: and it is quite safe to calculate that the heavier the wood the higher will be the values for its mechanical properties. The durability of various woods, however, has apparently nothing to do with their density. The heavier species are not necessarily the most durable; some of the lighter woods, such as cedar and redwood, have excellent lasting properties, while some of the heavier hardwoods, such as hickory and red oak, are notably less decay resisting; and, on the other hand, the lighter woods, basswood and cottonwood, are not durable, while the heavier woods, osage orange and locust, are Table 10 gives the estimated life of a number of untreated woods in several forms.

In practically all woods the sapwood is less resistant to decay than heartwood; therefore in timber that is to be used without preservative treatment, the proportion of sapwood has an important bearing on the value of the material. In the smaller sizes of structural timber, 2×10 , 6×8 , etc., frequently no sap at all is allowed. In the larger sizes, 10×12 and 8×16 , two inches of sap is often allowed on several edges, or its equivalent on one edge. Where the timber is to be given an antiseptic treatment, sapwood is not generally considered detrimental; for it takes treatment more easily than heartwood, and when properly treated should be equally as decay-resistant as the treated heartwood.

The moisture condition of structural timbers has had but little attention until the last few years. The amount of moisture in timber to be used in interior construction, especially in poorly ventilated places, is of considerable importance from the stand-

TABLE 10.-LIFE OF UNTREATED WOOD

The estimates given are based on Forest Service experiments and general information. The durability of wood will vary from the estimated averages with local conditions.

Species	Ties properly tie plated	Poles	Posts	Lumber placed under conditions sub jecting it to decay
DI 11	years	years	years	years
Black locust	20 or over		Over 15	
Redwood	10 to 12	12 to 15	12 to 15	12 to 15
Osage orange			Over 15	
Cypress (heart)	10 to 12	12 to 15	12 to 15	12 to 15
Mulberry	• • • • • • • • •		Over 15	
Yew			Over 15	
Eastern red cedar			12 to 15	
Western juniper			Over 15	
Northern white cedar	10 to 12	12 to 15	12 to 15	12 to 15
Southern white cedar		6 to 8	6 to 8	12 to 15
Western red cedar		9 to 11	9 to 11	12 to 15
Port Orford cedar	10 to 12			
White oak	6 to 8	6 to 8	6 to 8	6 to 8
Catalpa			12 to 15	.
Chestnut	6 to 8	12 to 15	9 to 11	12 to 15
Longleaf pine	6 to 8	6 to 8	6 to 8	9 to 11
Douglas fir	6 to 8	6 to 8	6 to 8	9 to 11
Red spruce	6 to 8			6 to 8
White pine	3 to 5			6 to 8
Western yellow pine	3 to 5	2 to 5	2 to 5	6 to 8
Sugar pine				6 to 8
Engelmann spruce			6 to 8	
Elm			0.00	6 to 8
Red oak	3 to 5		2 to 5	3 to 5
	3 to 5	2 to 5	2 to 5	
Lodgepole pine		- ** *	2 to 5	• • • • •
Aspen			l.	0.4- 5
Ash	0.4- 7		2 to 5	3 to 5
Hemlock	3 to 5			6 to 8
Tamarack	3 to 5		2 to 5	6 to 8
Sitka spruce			2 to 5	
Birch	3 to 5			3 to 5
Maple	3 to 5			3 to 5
Alpine fir			2 to 5	
Loblolly pine	3 to 5	2 to 5	2 to 5	
Red gum	3 to 5		2 to 5	3 to 5
Western larch	3 to 5			
Poplar				3 to 5
Cottonwood				3 to 5
Tupelo				3 to 5
Basswood				3 to 5
Beech	3 to 5			3 to 5
Sycamore				- 3 to 5

point of durability. Many instances are on record where structural timber of high quality has been used in mill construction without proper drying and has become infected with so-called "dry rot" within a year or two after its placement, while timber of the same quality, but properly seasoned, has given satisfaction under similar conditions for ten or fifteen years. Timber put in position green is also liable to shrinkage or distortion, which under certain conditions may be very objectionable.

It is not always easy to judge the condition of seasoning of structural timber from a visual inspection. The number and character of checks will give some idea as to the seasoned condition, and the amount of weathering on the sides and ends is also a rough indicator of the moisture condition. If it is possible to weigh the pieces, their weights may be compared to calculated weights of the same sized sticks of dry material (see Table 3, Chapter II); and if they are very wet, the actual weights will show a considerable excess over the calculated weights for air dry A more definite method is to calculate the moisture from borings made in representative places on the sides of the An inch bit is satisfactory. The depth of the hole varies with the size of the stick, half or a third of the way to the center being considered deep enough. The borings are collected and weighed immediately and then dried to constant weight at approximately 212° F. (100° C.) and weighed again. The difference between the two weights, divided by the dry weight, and multiplied by 100 gives the moisture content of the stick in percent. of the dry weight. If more than one boring is made, the results are averaged.

Defects, such as checks and knots or knot holes, should be carefully inspected, as they form excellent places for the lodgement of the spores of fungi; and if any incipient decay is indicated, the piece should either be thrown out or steps taken to check the decay before putting the timber in use.

Inspections of a number of buildings which have given trouble on account of decay have shown that any one of the following causes may result in rapid deterioration of a building:

- 1. The use of green timber.
- 2. Allowing timber to get wet during construction.
- 3. Leaks or lack of ventilation, allowing the timber to absorb moisture after the building is finished.
 - 4. The use of timbers containing too much sapwood.

5. The use of timbers which have already started to decay.

The avoidance of these conditions will, as a rule, prevent decay. In special cases, however, decay can only be prevented by preservative treatment. Wood that has been in contact with damp ground usually contains the right amount of moisture for



Fig. 34.—Decay in braces at a joint where moisture has collected.

decay. Also, where timber is in contact with wood or other material water frequently collects in the joints and keeps the wood moist and in a condition favorable to decay. Figure 34 shows a condition of this kind.

The presence of resin in wood keeps out moisture and air, and in this way it acts as a preservative although it is not highly poisonous to wood-destroying fungi. It is quite a common occurrence to find lying in the woods pine logs which at first sight are apparently in a fair state of preservation, but of which the sap is found on examination to be entirely decayed, the only portions remaining sound being such parts of the heart as are permeated with resin. It is also a well-known fact that fence posts chosen from pitchy material last longer than similar posts from wood with a small pitch content. While a high per cent. of resin undoubtedly adds markedly to durability, the effect of the amount of rosin generally found in structural timber is not definitely known.¹

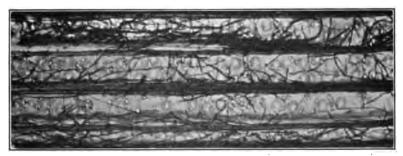


Fig. 35.—Thin section of rotting pine showing fungous threads and holes where these have penetrated through the walls of the wood cells.

Agencies that Destroy Wood.—The principal agencies that destroy wood are fungi, insects, and borers.

Decay in timber is generally due to the walls of the cells, of which wood is built up, being eaten by certain fungi. The life of a wood-rotting fungus has two stages: (1) the mouldlike vegetative stage, during which the cottony threads or mycelium penetrate through the wood (Fig. 35); and (2) the fruiting stage, during which the shelflike or "toadstool" outgrowths, or in some cases, merely surface incrustations, are formed (Figs. 36, 37, and 38). The fruit bodies produce spores, and these blow about like seeds and, if they lodge where growth conditions are right, germinate to produce the cottony threads which rot the timber. The fungus may also spread directly by the mycelium's

¹ Mr. F. J. Hoxie of the Associated Factory Mutual Fire Insurance Companies of Boston discusses the question in detail in his book, "Dry Rot in Factory Timbers."

passing from diseased to adjacent sound timbers, as shown in Fig. 39.

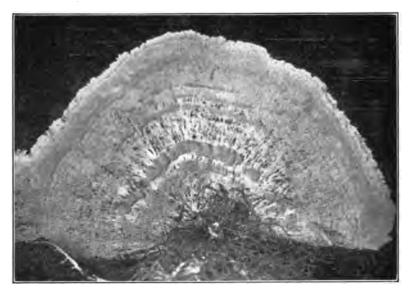


Fig. 36.—Fruiting body of wood-rotting fungus on a board from a clay mine.

The growth of fungus is dependent on food, moisture, temperature, and at least a small amount of air. A large part of wood



Fig. 37.—Mushroom on a rotten log. Fig. 38.—A surface fungous growth. substance is suitable for fungus food. In badly decayed pieces about 70 per cent. of the original weight has been lost. A con-

siderable amount of moisture is necessary for rapid decay. Air dry timber containing about 20 per cent. moisture will not rot in dry weather; but during continuous rainy, damp weather enough moisture may be absorbed from the air to start decay. Wet logs buried deeply will stay sound because sufficient air to support fungous growth can not get to them. Different temperatures exert a marked influence on decay. Each wood-rotting fungus has an optimum for rapid growth. Most thrive around 80° F. Comparatively small rises above the optimum are often fatal. It is good practice to heat wooden factory buildings thoroughly soon after completion in order to kill surface growth of fungi. Low temperatures are not harmful to them; practically all fungi survive the severest winters. The fruit bodies or spores of



Fig. 39.—Spread of fungus by contact. A, open shed where infection has spread upward from decayed piece on ground. B, corner of building where infection has spread from decayed sill.

fungi are known to have remained alive for as long as eight years when in a dry condition.

Insects damage timber by excavating burrows or galleries in the wood. Round timber, rough or dressed lumber, and finished wood products are all subject to attack. Construction timber, and other wood materials used in buildings, bridges, railroad construction, mining, etc., are often infested by wood-boring grubs, powder post borers, white ants, and other insects. It is often difficult to estimate the extent of the injury to timber from insects by the evidences of their work on the surface. Pieces of timber showing signs of containing active borers should of course not be used in building, as the insects may weaken the pieces and spread to others. Borers may enter the log through a single small hole and then excavate a great many winding burrows

whose extent can not be estimated from a surface inspection. Timber borers may be either beetles or worms. The powder post beetle, whose work is illustrated in Fig. 40, is one of the common wood borers. These beetles attack the sapwood of



Fig. 40.—View of surface and interior of axe handle attacked by powder post borers. Note that few holes on surface do not indicate extent of damage to interior.

partly or thoroughly seasoned hardwoods, especially ash, hickory, and oak. They do not attack the heartwood. White ants² or termites, black ants, and carpenter bees are other wood-boring

¹See Farmers' Bulletin 778, U. S. Department of Agriculture, "Powder-Post Damage by Lyctus Beetles to Seasoned Hardwood," by A. D. Hopkins and T. E. Snyder, Bureau of Entomology.

²See Farmers' Bulletin 759, U. S. Department of Agriculture, "White Ants as Pests in the United States and Methods of Preventing their Damage," by T. E. Snyder, Bureau of Entomology.

insects. Termites sometimes cause an almost complete destruction of the timber attacked by leaving nothing but an outer shell. They operate principally in the more southern States.

Marine borers which operate in the water on piling, dock timbers, the hulls of wooden vessels, etc., are of two general



Fig. 41.—Portion of spruce pile destroyed in three years by marine borers in the harbor of Klawock, Alaska.

forms commonly known as "shipworms" and "wood lice." Shipworms bore into wood exposed to their attack under the water when they are very young. The hole by which the worm enters the wood is minute but the cavity is enlarged rapidly inside the

¹ The name includes the mollusks, zylotrya, and teredo.

² The name includes the crustaceans, limnoria, chelura, and sphæroma.

timber to accommodate the growing body. In rare cases a length of 6 feet with a diameter of 1 inch is said to be attained. Of the crustacean borers, limnoria is the most common. It is about the size of a grain of rice and bores countless galleries in the wood close together, which so weaken the surface of the timber attacked that it is washed off by wave action and new wood exposed to attack. Figure 41 shows a portion of a pile destroyed by both classes of borers.

Alkaline soils, birds, and sap stain are other agencies of less importance than fungi, insects, and marine borers but which cause deterioration in timber.

RELATIONS INDICATED BY TESTS OF STRUCTURAL TIMBERS

- 1. All the species tested seem to be subject to the same general laws regarding the relation of mechanical to physical properties.
- 2. The proportion of summerwood in structural timber is a means of judging its density and strength.
- 3. Seasoning can not be counted on to strengthen structural timbers.
- 4. Seasoning increases the liability to failure by horizontal shear.
- 5. The strength of beams is seriously lowered by knots or irregular grain in the center half near the lower edge.
- 6. Timbers that have been seasoned and soaked are not as strong as they were before seasoning.
- 7. The presence of knots generally indicates wood of low density and strength, such as is common in top logs.
- 8. Diagonal grain or spiral grain is a serious defect in structural timber.
- 9. Certain rates of growth in some species are generally associated with strong material, but rate of growth should not be depended on to indicate satisfactory timber.
- 10. The use of green timber, timber with considerable sapwood, and timber with incipient decay is frequently the cause of deterioration in buildings.
- 11. Structural timbers that show signs of containing active wood borers should not be used in permanent building operations.

THE GRADING OF STRUCTURAL TIMBERS

The purpose of grading rules for structural timbers is to make possible the separation of such material by inspection into groups or grades, so that each stick in a certain grade will be of approximately the same value for certain purposes.¹

Until recent years, large quantities of high-grade timber suitable for engineering construction were available in the United States, so that little necessity was felt for economy in sizes or careful quality grading. Engineers and builders demanded and received structural timber of the highest quality. There was an ample supply in the forests to cut from, and timber of questionable quality was left. Years of heavy cutting in the finest stands of structural timber, naturally, have had their effect, and in many localities it is now somewhat difficult to obtain shipments of the highest quality material. The practice of cutting timber of an intermediate or poor quality, as well as high-class timber, into structural material and the growing tendency to place these timbers of various qualities on the market has made the question of grading rules and methods of inspection of increasing importance.

Lumber manufacturers' associations have done much to standardize the grading rules for different species and classes of timber. Many grading rules, however, are based entirely on the number and character of defects in the pieces; and while this basis of classification has proved fairly satisfactory in grading sawmill products, such as lumber and boards for the woodworking industries, it has not been very effective in separating structural timbers according to strength.

The American Society for Testing Materials was the first technical association to formulate a specification for structural timber in which the position of defects was considered. This specification was based on tests of structural timbers made by the Forest Service and other agencies. The introduction of such a specification was a distinct step forward, as it has been abundantly proved in tests that a beam with large knots close to the edges and near the center of the span is not as strong as a similar beam with the same number and kind of knots differently located.

¹ A timber specification is a set of requirements prepared with the intention of having any piece of timber that fulfils the requirements suitable for a given purpose. Grading rules are generally prepared by the timber producer and specifications by the timber user.

The strength, or mechanical properties, of timber is dependent upon the quality of the wood, irrespective of defects as well as upon the location, number, and condition of defects. This quality is indicated by the dry weight of the wood, i.e., the heavier the wood or the greater its specific gravity, the greater is its strength, stiffness, toughness, etc. The relative dry weight of different pieces of wood may be judged by comparing the proportion of summerwood in their cross sections. By summerwood is meant the darker harder portion of the annual rings. corporation in grading rules of some requirement covering the quality of the wood has been advocated by the Forest Service for a number of years, and recently the American Society for Testing Materials and the Southern Pine Association have adopted rules which provide for the quality of the wood itself, as well as limit the position, size, and condition of defects. first definite commercial application of inspection by the proportion of summerwood in the annual rings was the employment of the so-called "density rule" by the Panama Canal in the inspection of a large shipment of southern yellow pine over which a controversy had arisen.

Engineers and architects have for some time been unnecessarily confused by the large number of different grading rules for structural timbers that are in use in the United States. tically all of the lumber associations have adopted rules for the purpose of classifying the lumber manufactured by their mem-The railroads also have specifications under which their timber is bought, and a number of the engineering societies have from time to time brought out timber specifications or grading rules. Often when it is desired to consider the use of a new species for structural purposes, it is impossible with the present confusion in grading rules for the purchaser to select a different species with any definite assurance that the grade of material he selects corresponds in strength with the grade of material he has been using. Many of the present rules are either very general and loose, leaving everything to the opinion of the inspector, or else so rigidly drawn as to exclude much timber of high strength.

The most efficient grading rules are those which will exclude material not suitable for the purpose intended and at the same time will not exclude more than a reasonable amount of material belonging in the grade. The most important point is that no pieces which it would be dangerous to use are passed by the rule, and that in keeping out the dangerous material the smallest possible amount of material is excluded that really belongs in the grade from the standpoint of strength. Grading rules should be based on test data and a knowledge of the requirements of the trade and the ability of the producer to meet these requirements. Under present conditions in the lumber industry, practical grading rules for structural timber must be simple and such that the timber can be inspected in a reasonable time, in addition, of course, to dividing the timbers satisfactorily into groups containing pieces of approximately the same strength.

The two properties essential in structural timber are strength and durability, and the degree to which it possesses these properties, i.e., the more load it will carry and the longer it will last, the greater will be its value. The quality of the wood as indicated by the character of the annual rings in the cross section and the location and size of defects makes it possible to classify timber from the strength standpoint. Durability is judged largely from the proportion of sapwood, which decays much more quickly than heartwood. Little is known of the effect of density in any one species; i.e., whether a heavy piece of Douglas fir is more durable than one of lighter weight has yet to be proved. A high per cent. of resin is favorable to durability. The moisture condition of structural material from a durability standpoint is an important consideration. Seasoning is especially necessary for inside work.

Classification of Defects.—In grading timber the question of classifying knots and limiting such defects as wane, ring shakes, etc., frequently arises. The following definitions and illustrations (Figs. 42, 43, and 44) give what is considered good practice in defining and classifying various characteristics of wood. The definitions are practically the same as those adopted by the American Society for Testing Materials and are very similar to those adopted by the Southern Pine Association and the West Coast Lumbermen's Association.

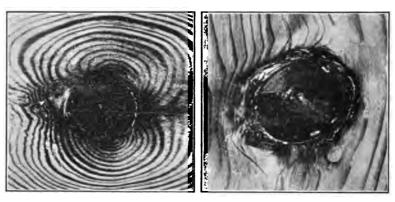
Classification of Defects in Structural Timber

Knots.—Knots are caused by growing branches or by dead branches adhering to the trunk during the process of growth of the tree. They are classified as follows:

TIMBER

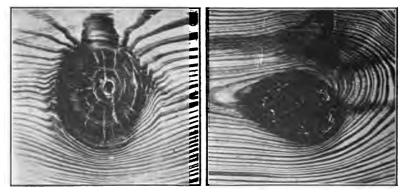


Sound knot



Loose knot

Encased knot



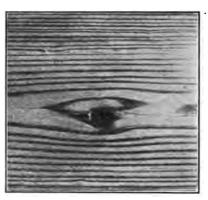
Pith knot

Rotten knot

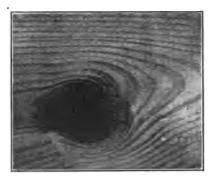
Fig. 42.—Classification of knots according to quality.



Round knot



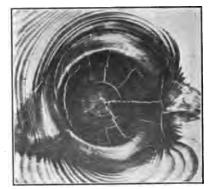
Pin knot (not over ½" in diameter)



Standard knot (not over 1½" in diameter)



Spike knot A



Large knot (over $1\frac{1}{2}$ " in diameter)

Fig. 43.—Classification of knots according to form (A) and size (B).

$$\mathbf{Size} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{Pin} \\ \mathbf{Standard} \\ \mathbf{Large} \end{array} \right. \mathbf{Form} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{Round} \\ \mathbf{Spike} \end{array} \right. \mathbf{Quality} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{Sound} \\ \mathbf{Loose} \\ \mathbf{Encased} \\ \mathbf{Rotten} \\ \mathbf{Pith} \end{array} \right.$$

'A pin knot is a sound knot not over ½ inch in average diameter.

A standard knot is a sound knot over ½ inch but not over 1½ inches in average diameter.



Fig. 44.—Cross section of timber showing several kinds of defects.

A large knot is a sound knot more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in average diameter.

A round knot is one which is oval or circular in form.

A spike knot is one sawn in a lengthwise direction.

A sound knot is one solid across its face and as hard as the wood it is in. It is so fixed in the piece as to retain its position.

A loose knot is one not firmly held in place.

An encased knot is one surrounded wholly or in part by bark or pitch and not intergrown with the adjacent wood.

A rotten knot is one not as hard as the surrounding wood.

A pith knot is a sound knot with a pith hole not over $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in diameter in the center.

Pitch Pockets.—Pitch pockets are openings between the annual rings containing more or less pitch or bark. They are classified as follows:

Size | Small | Standard | Large

A small pitch pocket is one not over 1/8 inch wide.

A standard pitch pocket is one not over % inch wide, or 3 inches in length.

A large pitch pocket is one over 3% inch wide or 3 inches in length.

Pitch Streak.—A pitch streak is a well-defined accumulation of pitch at one place in a piece of timber.

Wane.—Wane is irregularity on the edge of a piece of lumber due to the presence of bark, or breakage, or the absence of wood.

Ring Shakes.—A ring shake is a curved slit or opening between the annual rings in a piece of timber. A through shake is a ring shake which extends from one face to an adjoining or opposite face.

Checks.—A check in a piece of timber is a split or opening, generally at right angles to the annual rings on a cross section and often caused by rapid seasoning. A through check extends from one face to another of a piece.

Rot.—Rot is any form of decay. It may be evident as a dark red discoloration not found in the sound wood or as white or red soft spots.

Cross Grain.—Cross grain occurs in a piece of timber when the fibers of the wood are not parallel to the edges. It may be of two kinds:

Diagonal grain is present when the piece is not sawed parallel to the annual rings and, consequently, the lines formed by cutting the annual rings run diagonally across the stick.

Spiral grain is caused by the fibers of the wood growing spirally around the pith of the tree instead of vertically parallel to the pith.

Various Grading Rules.—The following are examples of specifications and grading rules for structural timber adopted by railroads, lumber associations, etc.

CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO RAILWAY COMPANY

Specifications for Longleaf Yellow Pine

All lumber must be cut from living timber of good quality, and must be free from splits, shakes, loose or decayed knots, or defects which impair its durability. It shall be well manufactured to the size ordered, and must be of longleaf virgin pine; no shortleaf yellow pine, bull pine, or loblolly pine will be accepted under this specification.

Y. P. 1

Bridge guard rails, platform joists, signal masts, bumper posts, mail crane posts, trestle posts, cattle guards, semaphore posts, sills and braces, water-tank frames, and dock timbers.

All square lumber shall show two-thirds heart on two sides and not less than one-half heart on the other two sides. Other sizes shall show two-thirds heart on faces, and show heart on two-thirds of the length on edges, excepting where the width exceeds the thickness by 3 inches or over; then it shall show heart on the edges for one-half the length.

Y. P. 2

Bridge cross ties, bridge stringers, water-tank joists, scale timbers, and trestle caps.

On all square sizes the sap on each corner shall not exceed one-sixth the width of the face; when the width does not exceed the thickness by 3 inches to show one-half the heart on narrow face the entire length; exceeding 3 inches to show heart on narrow face the entire length; sap on wide faces to be measured as on square sizes.

Y. P. 3

Boards and plank for flooring.

Boards and plank 9 inches and under wide to have at least one heart face and two-thirds heart on opposite side; boards and planks over 9 inches to have not less than two-thirds heart on both sides.

CHICAGO GREAT WESTERN

Standard Specifications for Southern Yellow Pine Bridge and Trestle Timbers

(To be applied to single sticks and not to composite members)

Note.—The "Standard Heart Grade" is intended for general use in bridges and trestles, while the "Standard Grade" is intended for falsework, trestles for filling, and for other temporary construction.

- 1. Except as noted, all timbers shall be sound, sawed to standard size, full length, square cornered and straight; shall be close grained and free from defects such as injurious ring shakes and cross grain, unsound or loose knots, knots in groups, decay, or other defects that will materially impair its strength.
- Rough timbers sawed to standard size means that they shall not be
 Y. P. = yellow pine.

over 1/4 inch scant from the actual size specified. For instance a 12 by 12-inch timber shall measure not less than 113/4 by 113/4 inches.

3. Standard dressing means that not more than $\frac{1}{2}$ inch shall be allowed for dressing each surface. For instance, a 12 by 12-inch timber, after being dressed on four sides, shall measure not less than $11\frac{1}{2}$ by $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Standard Heart Grade, Longleaf Yellow Pine

4. Stringers shall show not less than 85 per cent. heart on the girth anywhere in the length of the piece; provided, however, that if the maximum amount of sap is shown on either narrow face of the stringer, the average depth of sap shall not exceed ½ inch. Knots greater than 1½ inches in diameter will not be permitted at any section within 4 inches of the edge of the piece, but knots shall in no case exceed 4 inches in their largest diameter.

Douglas Fir and Western Hemlock Bridge and Trestle Timbers

(To be applied to single sticks and not to composite members)

NOTE.—The "Standard Heart Grade" is intended for general use in bridges and trestles, while the "Standard Grade" is intended for falsework, trestles for filling, and for other temporary construction.

Standard Heart Grade

- 1. Standard Heart Grade shall include yellow and red Douglas fir and western hemlock, white Douglas fir will not be accepted.
- 2. All timber shall be live, sound, straight, and close grained, cut square cornered, full length, not more than ¼ inch scant in any dimension for rough timber or ½ inch for dressed timber; free from large, loose or unsound knots, knots in groups, or other defects that will materially impair its strength for the purpose for which it is intended. Subject to inspection before loading.
- 3. Stringers shall show not less than 90 per cent. heart on each side and edge, measured across the surface anywhere in the length of the piece. Shall be out of wind and free from shakes, splits, or pitch pockets over ¾ inch wide or 5 inches long. Knots greater than 2 inches in diameter-will not be permitted within one-fourth of the depth of the stringer from any corner nor upon the edge of any piece; knots shall in no case exceed 3 inches in diameter.
- 4. Caps, sills, and posts shall show not less than 85 per cent. heart on each of the four sides, measured across the surface anywhere in the length of the piece. Shall be out of wind and free from shakes, splits, or pitch pockets over ½ inch wide or 5 inches long. Knots shall not

exceed one-fourth of the width of the surface of the piece in which they occur and shall in no case exceed 3 inches in diameter.

5. Longitudinal struts or girts, X braces, sash and sway braces shall show one side all heart, the other side and two edges shall show not less than 85 per cent. heart, measured across the surface anywhere in the length of the piece.

CHICAGO, BURLINGTON AND QUINCY RAILROAD COMPANY

Construction Timbers

. Must be sawed full size, square edged and be sound and well manufactured. Must be free from black or rotten knots; or from knots, checks, or pitch seams large enough to weaken the piece in any way.

CHICAGO AND NORTHWESTERN RAILWAY COMPANY

Specifications for Timber

Must be well manufactured from live timber, no black, large or weakening knots, cut full size, exact. It is understood that shipments on this order are subject to inspection and acceptance at destination.

PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD

Longleaf Yellow Pine

Longleaf yellow pine shall be cut from sound, live timber, well manufactured, full size, saw butted and square edged, unless otherwise specified.

Merchantable shall show some heart the entire length on one side for pieces 9 inches and under and on two opposite sides for pieces over 9 inches. On 10 per cent. of the pieces for any one size wane one-eighth the width and one-fourth the length of the piece may be allowed on one corner or its equivalent on two corners.

Yellow Fir

Common car sills and framing shall be cut from sound, live timber, well manufactured, full size, and free from rot, shakes, unsound knots, cross grain, bark or wane edge.

This grade will admit sap, any number of sound knots, provided they are intergrown and not in clusters and do not exceed one-fourth the width of the piece, and pitch pockets or pitch seams which do not weaken the piece for the purpose intended.

Grand Trunk Railway System
Stringers, caps, guard rail, bridge ties, tank posts.

Longleaf Yellow Pine, 90 Per Cent Heart

ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAILROAD COMPANY Specifications for Pine and Cypress Bridge Timber General Specifications for All Kinds of Pine Timber

All timber shall be sawed from sound live trees and shall be cu. square and out of wind, with adjacent faces at right angles to each othert No piece shall vary more than one-quarter of an inch less than the specified dimensions. All timber shall be free from thorough, round or injurious wind shakes, large, loose, grouped or unsound knots, pitch seams, red heart, decay or other defects which may impair the strength or durability of the timber.

Class "A."—Timber in this class shall be two-thirds heart faces except when it is specified that there shall be two-thirds heart on edges. Nothing but longleaf yellow pine accepted.

Class "B."—Timber in this class shall be 85 per cent. heart. Nothing but longleaf yellow pine accepted.

Class "C."—Timber in this class shall be square edged and sound, and unless longleaf yellow pine is specified, shortleaf pine and loblolly are preferred.

Specifications for Timber to be Used in Building Construction

All building material shall conform to classification of the Yellow Pine Manufacturers' Association, adopted at New Orleans, January 24, 1906.

Platform plank shall have one heart face, except that 1-inch sap will be allowed on one corner of this face—no sap restrictions on opposite face.

Specifications for Cypress Timber

All cypress timber shall be of the red cypress variety, or what is usually called "Louisiana Cypress." It shall be divided into several grades, corresponding to the above division for pine timber, in accordance with the use to which it is to be put, and shall be generally classed as merchantable heart timber, free from extensive honey-comb peck. Timber shall not be rejected on account of small wind shakes running in one direction only, provided the timber can be used so that such shakes are vertical or at right angles to the bearing faces of the timber. Timber containing extensive honey-comb peck, black, rotten knots and

¹ Disbanded and succeeded by the Southern Pine Association.

holes shall be rejected. Sap wood may be permitted in the several cases as specified above for yellow pine timber.

Specification Adopted by the Panama Canal for Southern Yellow Pine Structural Timber

Yellow pine must show on the cross section, between the third and fourth inch, measured radially from the heart center or pith, not less than six annual rings of growth, a greater number of which shall show at least one-third summerwood, the dark portion of the rings of growth. Wide-ringed material excluded by this rule will be acceptable, provided that in the greater number of the annual rings the dark ring is hard and in width equal to or greater than the adjacent light-colored ring. In all cases there must be sharp contrast in color between the springwood and summerwood.

For sizes where the center can not be determined there must show on the cross section an average of not less than six annual rings of growth, otherwise the same as the above paragraph.

In other respects to grade "Prime," Interstate rules of 1905.

SPECIFICATION ADOPTED BY THE GEORGIA-FLORIDA SAWMILL ASSOCIATION FOR SOUTHERN YELLOW PINE STRUCTURAL TIMBER

Paragraph I.—For timbers and dimension, there must show on the cross section between the third and fourth inch, measured radially from the heart center or pith, not less than six annual rings of growth, a greater number of which shall show at least one-third summerwood, which is the dark portion of the rings of growth. Wide-ringed material excluded by this rule will be acceptable, provided that in the greater number of the annual rings the dark ring is hard and in width equal to or greater than the adjacent light-colored ring. In all cases there must be sharp contrast in color between the springwood and the summerwood.

Paragraph II.—For sizes where the center can not be determined the following will apply: There must show on the cross section an average of not less than six annual rings of growth, with not less than one-third summerwood, and otherwise as provided for in Paragraph I.

Building Code Recommended by the National Board of Fire Underwriters, New York, 1915

Rules for Grading Structural Timbers of Southern Yellow Pine, Prepared in Coöperation with the United States Forest Service Grade I¹

- 1. Requirements for Quality of Timber Based Upon Soundness and Density.
 - (a) Soundness.—Shall contain only sound wood.
 - (b) Density, as indicated by number of rings and proportion of
- ¹This is practically the same as the "Select Structural" grade adopted by the Southern Pine Association.

summerwood.—Shall show on the cross section an average of not less than one-third summerwood, measured over the third, fourth, and fifth inches on a radial line from the pith. Timber averaging less than six annual growth rings per inch shall show an average of not less than one-half summerwood. Contrast in color between summerwood and springwood shall be sharp.

In cases where timbers do not contain the pith, and it is impossible to locate it with any degree of accuracy by curvature of the rings, the inspection shall be made over 3 inches of an approximately radial line, beginning at the edge nearest the pith.

2. Restrictions on Knots in Beams.

Sound knots over 1½ inches in diameter or knots over ½ inch in diameter which are insecurely attached to the surrounding wood, shall not be permitted in the middle half of the length of narrow or horizontal faces of beams; nor in the middle half of the length of the wide or vertical faces within a distance equal to one-fourth their width from the edges (see Fig. 31). No knot shall be permitted within these areas whose diameter exceeds one-fourth the width of the face on which it appears.

The aggregate diameter of all knots within the middle half of the length of any face, shall not exceed the width of that face.

3. Restrictions on Knots in Columns.

Sound knots having diameters greater than 4 inches or one-third the least dimension of a column, or knots over ½ inch in diameter which are insecurely attached to the surrounding wood, shall not be permitted.

4. Restrictions on Shakes and Checks in Beams.

Ring shakes shall not occupy at either end of a timber more than one-fourth the width for green material, nor more than one-third the width for seasoned material. Shakes shall not show on the faces of either green or seasoned timber.

Any combination of shakes and checks which would reduce the strength to a greater extent than the ring shakes here allowed, shall not be permitted.

5. Restrictions on Cross Grain in Beams.

Shall not have diagonal grain with slope greater than one in twenty within the middle half of the length of the beam.

Grade II

6. Requirements for Quality.

Grade II includes timber rejected from Grade I on account of either (a) having less density than required for Grade I; or (b) having more serious defects than are allowed in Grade I.

(a) Timber rejected from Grade I because of deficient density, will be accepted in Grade II provided it meets all the requirements of Grade I,

except that in Rule 1, (b), the requirement for one-third summerwood in material having six rings and over per inch, shall be changed to one-fourth; and that the requirement of one-half summerwood in material having less than six rings per inch, shall be changed to one-third.

(b) Timber rejected from Grade I for excess defects will be accepted in Grade II, provided its density conforms to Rule 1, (b), and its defects are limited as follows:

7. Restrictions on Knots in Beams.

Sound knots over 3 inches in diameter or whose diameter exceeds one-half the width of the face on which they appear, or knots which are insecurely attached to the surrounding wood, whose diameter exceeds 1½ inches or one-fourth the width of the face on which they appear, shall not be permitted in the middle half of the length of narrow or horizontal faces of beams; nor in the middle half of the length of wide or vertical faces within a distance equal to one-fourth their width from the edges.

The aggregate diameter of all knots within the middle half of the length of any face shall not exceed twice the width of that face.

8. Restrictions on Knots in Columns.

Sound knots having diameters greater than 6 inches or one-half the least dimension of a column, or knots insecurely attached to the surrounding wood, and having diameters greater than 3 inches or one-fourth the least dimension of a column, shall not be permitted.

9. Restrictions on Shakes and Checks in Beams.

Ring shakes shall not occupy at either end of a timber more than onethird the width for green material, nor more than one-half the width for seasoned material.

Any combination of shakes and checks which would reduce the strength to a greater extent than the ring shakes here allowed, shall not be permitted.

GRADING RULES OF WEST COAST LUMBERMEN'S ASSOCIATION FOR DOUGLAS
FIR AND WESTERN HEMLOCK

Fir Timbers

Selected Common.—Shall be sound, strong timber, well manufactured and free from defects that materially impair its strength. Must be suitable for high class construction purposes; free from shake, splits, loose or rotten knots. Will allow sound and tight knots, if not in clusters, and which in no case shall exceed in diameter one-sixth the width of the face in which such knots occur up to and including 12×12 ; and further providing that such sound and tight knots in 14×14 and larger, shall in no case exceed $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter.

The select common grade also will allow occasional variation in sawing; tight pitch pockets, not over 6 inches in length; wane not to exceed 1 inch on one corner and not exceeding one-sixth the length of the piece.

No. 1 Common.—Timber 6×10 and larger shall be sound stock, well manufactured and free from defects that will materially weaken the piece. Occasional slight variation in sawing allowed. 10×10 timbers may have a 2-inch wane on one corner or the equivalent on two or more corners; checks and season checks not extending over one-eighth the length of the piece. Smaller and larger timbers may have wane in proportion. In addition will allow large, sound, and tight knots which, approximately, should not be more than one-fourth the width in diameter of any one side in which they may appear; spike knots; stained sap one-third the width and slight streak of heart stain extending not more than one-fourth the length of the piece.

No. 2 Common.—This grade will admit large, loose, or rotten knots; a 10×10 may have 3-inch wane on one corner or the equivalent on two or more corners—larger and smaller sizes in proportion; shake or rot that does not impair its utility for temporary work. Hemlock and white fir will be allowed in this grade.

INTERSTATE RULES OF 1916

Yellow Pine Lumber

All lumber must be sound longleaf yellow pine. Sizes 2 inches and over in thickness and over 6 inches in width, there must show on the cross section of one end between the third and fourth inch, measured radially from the heart center or pith, not less than six annual rings of growth, a greater number of which shall show at least one-third summerwood, which is the dark portion of the rings of growth. Wide-ringed material excluded by this rule will be acceptable, provided that in the greater number of the annual rings the dark ring is hard and in width equal to or greater than the adjacent light-colored ring. In all cases there must be sharp contrast in color between the springwood and summerwood. For sizes where the center can not be determined, the following will apply: There must show on the cross section an average of not less than one-third summerwood, and otherwise as provided where the heart center or pith can be determined. Well manufactured, full to size and saw butted, and shall be free from the following defects: Unsound, loose and hollow knots, worm holes and knot holes. through shakes, or round shakes that show on the surface, and shall be square edge unless otherwise specified.

Standard.—All lumber shall be sound, sap no objection. Wane may be allowed one-eighth of the width of the piece measured across

face of wane, extending one-fourth of the length on one corner, or its equivalent on two or more corners, provided that not over 10 per cent. of the pieces of any one size shall show such wane.

Merchantable.—All sizes under 9 inches shall show some heart entire length on one side; sizes 9 inches and over shall show some heart the entire length on two opposite sides. Wane may be allowed one-eighth of the width of the piece measured across face of wane, and extending one-fourth of the length of the piece on one corner, or its equivalent on two or more corners, provided that not over 10 per cent. of the spieces of any one size shall show such wane.

Prime. Dimension Sizes.—All square lumber shall show two-third heart on two sides, and not less than one-half heart on two other sides. Other sizes shall show two-thirds heart on faces and show heart two-thirds of length on edges, excepting when the width exceeds the thickness by 3 inches or over, then it shall show heart on the edges for one-half the length.

WORKING STRESSES FOR STRUCTURAL TIMBERS

The size of the timbers required to carry certain loads depends on the species and on the quality or grade of the timber. If specifications insuring a high quality of timber are used, it is evident that smaller sizes and higher stresses are allowable than if the specifications allow a wide variation in quality.

The working stresses in Table 11 are based on tests and grading investigations made by the Forest Service. Allowable stresses are given for timbers used under three different conditions: (a) damp or wet locations such as docks, piling, etc.; (b) outside locations not in contact with the soil such as bridges and open sheds; and (c) dry sheltered locations such as the interior of factories and warehouses.

The dense quality specified for southern yellow pine corresponds to Grade I timbers as given in the Building Code recommended by the National Fire Underwriters' Association. "Dense" material is also specified in the grade "Select Structural Timber" of the Southern Pine Association. The term southern yellow pine includes the principal pines of the southern States, longleaf, shortleaf, loblolly, and Cuban (slash). Since it is practically impossible always to identify the different species of yellow pine and since timbers of any of the different species may be of high grade or inferior grade, it has been recognized that the southern yellow pines should be graded on a basis of density and defects and not on a botanical basis. The same stresses

Table 11,-Working Stresses Permissible for Structural Timbers

(Pounds per square inch)

Codar, western red. Codar, red. with red. Codar, red.			Bending	ď				Compression	ssi on		
Damp or vet locations wet locations and sills and sil		Allowab	ole stress in fiber	extreme	Allowable	Allowable "Sho	stress paralle	el to grain	Allowable	stress peri to grain	endicular
Docks, and open sills Bridges and sills Locations and open solutions Bridges and open solutions Locations Docks, and open solutions Bridges and open solutions Docks, and open solutions Bridges and sills Docks, and sills Bridges and solutions			Outside, not in con- tact with	Under shelter in a dry loca-	shear	Damp or wet loca-		Under shelter in a dry loca- tion Fac-	Damp or wet loca-	Outside, not in con- tact with	Under shelter in s dry locs- tion. Fac-
750 800 900 80 650 750 125 600 650 750 750 450 550 150 700 850 750 800 1,100 225 1,000 1,300 1,300 95 900 1,100 225 1,000 1,300 1,100 85 900 1,100 225 600 750 900 1,100 85 700 800 200 800 1,100 1,200 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 225 800 1,100 1,000 1,000 1,000 1,000 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,000 1,100 225 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,200 200 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,100 225 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,200 200 200 1,000 <td< th=""><th></th><th>Docks, piling, and sills</th><th>Bridges and open sheds</th><th>tories and ware- houses</th><th>All</th><th>Docks, piling, and sills</th><th></th><th>tories and ware- houses</th><th>Docks, piling, and sills</th><th>Bridges and open sheds</th><th>tories and ware- houses</th></td<>		Docks, piling, and sills	Bridges and open sheds	tories and ware- houses	All	Docks, piling, and sills		tories and ware- houses	Docks, piling, and sills	Bridges and open sheds	tories and ware- houses
700 850 950 1700 850 950 1,000 1,100 1,500 95 900 1,100 225 1,000 1,300 1,500 95 900 1,100 225 600 750 900 1,100 750 800 200 800 900 1,100 1,200 1,500 200 200 1,200 1,100 1,200 1,500 1,500 1,100 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,100 200 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,100 200 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 200 200 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,100 225 200 1,000 1,100 1,500 1,100 225 200 200 1,000 1,100 1,200 1,100 225 225 225 200 200 200 200	::	750	800	900	802	650 450	200	700	125	150	200
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850 900 70 500 600 700 125 650 750 750 450 550 600 100 1,100 1,200 95 800 900 1,000 200	:	8	900	1,100	382	228	200	88	150 125	120	22 22 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2
1,100 1,200 95 800 900 1,000 200		500	850 650	900	22	200 420	900 220	88	125 100	150 140	200 175
		8	1,100	1,200	95	008	006	1,000	200	225	300

may be used for Douglas fir, provided the fir is selected in a manner to insure material of corresponding quality. The other species listed in Table 11 are to include material selected under the restrictions governing defects in Grade I or Select Structural Timber. Density requirements based on proportion of summerwood have not as yet been worked out satisfactorily for these woods; in them the dividing line between summerwood and springwood in the annual rings is frequently difficult to definitely determine.

TELEPHONE POLES

The pole tests made¹ by the Forest Service had for their object a comparison of the strength of the standard pole timbers of the Western and Lake States with proposed substitutes. Standard poles of western red cedar (Thuja plicata) and northern white cedar (Chamæcyparis thyoides) were tested for comparison with poles of lodgepole pine (Pinus contorta), Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga taxifolia), Engelmann spruce (Picea engelmanni), and western hemlock (Tsuga heterophylla).

There are at present in both the Rocky Mountains and the Coast Ranges abundant stands of lodgepole pine of little value for lumber. Lodgepole pine is not naturally durable in contact with the ground and for that reason has not been able to enter the field as a competitor of western red cedar. The general adoption of preservative treatment by railroad and telephone companies, however, has changed the situation. At an additional cost for treatment that still leaves the pine pole the cheaper of the two in most of the markets outside the region where cedar grows, the pine may be made to last longer than untreated cedar. Lodgepole pine takes treatment readily.

Engelmann spruce also has a wide distribution throughout the Rocky Mountains although it grows commercially only at the higher altitudes. It is thus not as available as lodgepole pine, nor in shape or ability to take treatment is it so well adapted for poles. It grows farther south, however, and in many districts is the only native timber available for pole use.

Forest fires in the Rocky Mountains have killed many stands of spruce and pine; and the disposal of this material, which,

¹ See Bull. 67, Dept. of Agriculture, "Tests of Rocky Mountain Woods for Telephone Poles," by Norman deW. Betts and A. L. Heim.

through checking, is rendered practically useless for saw timber, has always been a troublesome problem. On many areas such material remains entirely sound for a number of years after the fire, and, besides, is thoroughly seasoned and thus ready for treatment as soon as cut. In some regions the mines use all the available dead timber, though elsewhere there is a great deal of prejudice against the use of "fire-killed" material, under the mistaken assumption that there is some inherent difference

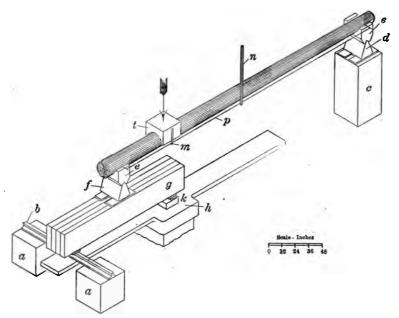


Fig. 45.—Method of testing poles.

in wood that has been seasoned on the stump and wood that has been cut when green.

Douglas fir and western hemlock poles were included in the tests because the large stands of these species in the Northwest and those of less importance in the Rocky Mountains make them competitors of western red cedar. Both northern white cedar and western red cedar in pole form are shipped over wide territories which frequently overlap, so that a comparison of the two from a strength standpoint is frequently needed.

Figure 45 shows the method used in the pole tests. The poles were supported at each end and loaded through a bearing

TABLE 12.—RESULTS OF TESTS ON POLES, SUMMAR Length of poles

Tested over 23-foot span with supports 1 foot from Tests made at U. S. Forest Service Laboratories

Group No.	Species and locality where grown	Condition	Number of tests		Top diam- eter
1	Western red cedar—	Seasoned about 3 years.	20	Av.	Inches
•	Edgemore, Idaho.	beasoned about o years.		Max. Min.	7.5
2	Lodgepole pine—Ana- conda, Mont.	Seasoned 5 months.	22	Av. Max. Min.	7.4 8.3 6.7
3	Lodgepole pine—Norrie, Colo.	Had been standing fire- killed 10 years when cut.	19	Av. Max. Min.	7.5 9.3 6.8
4	Engelmann spruce— Norrie, Colo.	Had been standing fire- killed 10 years when cut.	20	Av. Max. Min.	7.3 8.0 6.0
5	Western red cedar— Washington.	Seasoned 14 months. Slight interior rot at butt.	15	Av. Max. Min.	7.2 8.2 6.6
6	Western red cedar— Oregon.	Seasoned 14 months. General decay in butt and many knots.	15	Av. Max. Min.	7.1 7.7 6.7
7	Western red cedar— Idaho.	Seasoned 1 year. Few knots, little rot.	15	Av. Max. Min.	7.5 8.5 6.9
8	Northern white cedar— Northern Minnesota.	Seasoned 2 years. Centers rotten and many knots.	15	Av. Max. Min.	7.5 8.1 7.0
9	Douglas fir—Tolt, Wash.	Seasoned 16 months. Very few knots and compara-	15	Av. Max. Min.	8.7 10.1 7.3
10	Lodgepole pine (rough) —California.	tively little taper. Partially air dry.	20	Av. Max.	7.4 9.4 6.4
11	Lodgepole pine (smooth) California.	Partially air dry.	20	Min. Av. Max.	7.3
12	Lodgepole pine—Cali- fornia.	Had been standing fire- killed 1 to 5 years.	20	Min. Av. Max.	6.1 7.7 11.1
13	Western hemlock			Min. Av. Max. Min.	6.3 8.2 11.2 7.3

NOTE *.—The top reaction at maximum load is the pull which, if applied 1 foot from the top end, would break a pole 25 feet long set 5 feet in the ground.

GROUPS 1 to 4, inclusive, tested at Boulder, Colo. Groups 5 to 13, inclusive, tested at Seattle, Wash.

GROUP 1.—Cut near Edgemore, Idaho, winter of 1908-09. Probably peeled at time of cutting. Tested August, 1910.

GROUP 2.—Cut near Anaconda, Mont., July, 1911. Tested December, 1911.

GROUP 3 AND 4.—Cut near Norrie, Colo. Tested 11 months after cutting.

GROUP 5.—Represents average commercial stock. Cut in Washington. Seasoned under shelter at Seattle for 14 months. Remarkably free from knots which would affect their strength. A few showed traces of interior rot at butt end.

GROUP 6.—Represents average commercial stock. Cut in Oregon. Seasoned under shelter at Seattle for 14 months. Contained many knots and almost all showed signs of decay in the heartwood.

GROUP 7.—Cut along the shore of Lake Pend Oreille. Seasoned about a year at Sand Point, Idaho, then shipped to Seattle and tested immediately. Few knots and very little rot.

IZED BY SPECIES AND CONDITION OF SEASONING = 25 feet

each end of pole and loaded 5 feet from butt end. at Boulder, Colo., and Seattle, Wash., 1911-1915.

				Тор	•	Bending	strength	Stiff	ness
Weight when tested	Moist- ure	Approxi- mate age	Rings per inch	reac- tion at maxi- mum load (See note*)	Maxi- mum load at ground line	Modulus of rupture	Ratio to cedar (Idaho) (Group 1)	Stiff- ness factor	Ratio to cedar (Idaho) (Group 1)
1b 2222 2559 1779 304 412 248 3312 2574 2274 2272 178 1350 231 341 3440 293 341 3456 583 323 437 534 468	Per cent. of dry weight 15.1 30.8 12.0 21.9 34.8 18.5 16.9 11.2 16.3 32.8 11.9 15.7 16.8 20.7 18.8 18.9 27.1 19.5 17.1 19.5 17.1 19.5 17.1 22.9 22.9	Years 84 104 55 162 170 144 155 189 97 164 210 112 15 63 215 63 211 325 140 61 71 47 97 126	18 22 13 34 39 32 42 17 34 46 23 10 29 10 10 12 10 17 17 17 18	2,050 2,948 1,473 2,250 3,050 1,770 1,830 2,840 714 1,775 2,652 731 1,800 2,890 1,030 2,489 3,230 2,489 3,230 2,489 4,900 6,30	1b. 11,785 16,940 12,930 17,520 10,190 10,510 16,510 15,250 4,210 15,250 4,210 16,600 13,610 11,100 14,313 18,570 9,610 12,374 16,200 8,990 25,527 36,220 16,380 16,729 25,527 36,221 11,280 11,280	Lb. per sq. in. 6,885 99,360 7,680 9,500 4,387 6,070 2,180 6,038 8,230 6,910 8,260 5,020 2,540 4,720 2,5597 8,679	100 112 80 64 98 100 51 63 	6.75 9.46 4.43 8.62 10.86 6.25 6.27 4.42 4.97 6.97 3.30 6.45 6.45 6.45 6.35 6.35 6.37 6.47 6.37	100 127 93 112 95 104 171 70 92
259 426 680	23.0 28.5 54.9	59 101 171	10 17 26	1,640 2,708 4,920	9,430 15,569 28,290	4,460 4,672 6,610	68	4.68 5.57 7.56	82
287 401 656 321	20.0 19.5 22.9 18.1	64 65 81 57	9 12 16 9	1,407 3,890 6,431 3,066	8,090 22,369 36,980 17,630	2,950 8,250 10,490 6,040	iżo 	3.60 10.33 13.37 7.41	i53

GROUP 8.—Cut in winter along the shore of Lak Superior in Minnesota. Seasoned for about two years at Ithaca, Wis., then shipped to Seattle and tested immediately. All contained rotten centers and a great many knots.

GROUP 9.—Cut near Tolt, Wash. Seasoned at Seattle for 16 months. Particularly free from large knots and had comparatively little taper.

GROUP 10.—Rough, considered unmerchantable because of large knots and very rapid

taper.
GROUP 11.—Comparatively free from large knots and judged to be of merchantable

grade.

GROUP 12.—Dead from 1 to 5 years. Some quite smooth; others very rough.

GROUP 13.—

¹ Moisture determinations on only 5 poles of each of these groups (10 and 11). The poles of Group 11 were considerably smaller at the butt than those of Groups 10 and 12. Although the modulus of rupture is greater in Group 11 than in Groups 10 and 12, the maximum loads are somewhat less because of the rapid taper and consequently larger load-point diameters of Groups 10 and 12.

CAUTION.—No comparison should be made between the various groups without giving careful attention to moisture contents and descriptions of material.

block at a point corresponding to the ground line. The conditions of the test correspond rather closely to conditions of actual use where the pole is set in the ground and has to meet stresses applied by the wind to the pole through the wires and cross-arms.

Table 12 gives the results of the tests on poles. The stiffness factor is simply a factor which will enable a comparison of the stiffness of poles tested in this particular way. It can not be used to compare the stiffness of poles in other ways.

The tests on poles showed the following:

Air-seasoned lodgepole pine poles cut from live timber in Montana were fully equal in strength to the western red cedar poles tested. In actual stress developed they were superior; but on account of the greater taper of the cedar poles this advantage was lost in a comparison based on equal top diameters, the dimension usually specified.

Western red cedar poles were superior in maximum load developed to the pine and spruce poles cut from a fire-killed area in Colorado.

The fire-killed pine, after standing ten years, did not show deterioration to any appreciable extent when compared to seasoned lodgepole pine cut from representative live trees in Wyoming and Colorado.¹ The advantage in strength of the material from the lodgepole pine poles from Montana can be accounted for by the fact that it was above normal in weight.

The two shipments of western red cedar from Idaho and the shipment from Washington were practically equal in strength. The shipment from Oregon was slightly weaker.

Northern white cedar poles ranked below any others tested, both in strength and stiffness. The quality of these poles however was noticeably poor.

Douglas fir and western hemlock poles were especially strong and stiff. These poles were much heavier than the western red cedar poles.

The fire-killed lodgepole pine poles from California ranked between the other two shipments of California lodgepole pine poles in strength. Conditions of growth in lodgepole pine apparently have more influence on the strength than five years standing after being fire killed.

¹ From tests on small, clear pieces not shown in Table 12.

CROSS-ARMS

Cross-arms must resist forces which are variable in amount and direction. In a telephone line the arms may be subjected to heavy loads under several conditions:

- 1. If the wires on one side of a pole are broken, a heavy side pull comes on the cross-arms from the other side. This causes a severe stress in the pole, and, as will be shown later, the pole is more likely to be broken than the cross-arm.
- 2. If the wires are heavily covered with sleet and there is a strong wind blowing, there is a pressure on the cross-arms; but here again the stress in the pole will cause it to fail before the cross-arm will give way. Similarly, in changes of direction in the line the sidewise pull of the wires is more severe on the poles than on the arms.
- 3. If the cross-arms are at the same level in the line, they receive no greater strains than those which may be imposed by the weight of the wires and adhering ice and by wind pressure. If, however, the middle pole of three is higher than the poles on either side and the wires are tightly stretched, there is a strong downward pull on the cross-arm. A similar condition might result if a single pole were left standing in a line where the poles on either side had fallen.

A test was devised by the Forest Service¹ in which the load was distributed along the arm, as it is in actual practice. The load was applied vertically because the arms are likely to receive their heaviest loads in this direction and because from these results it is possible to estimate the resistance of the arms to forces acting in other directions.

The material tested consisted of 84 six-pin cross-arms $3\frac{1}{4}$ by $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches by 6 feet. These were of four species: Douglas fir, shortleaf pine, longleaf pine, and southern white cedar. The longleaf pine arms were separated into three groups according to proportion of heartwood.

The arrangement of the test apparatus is shown in Fig. 46. The stub pole "f" rests on a short beam on two posts, which in turn rest on the weighing platform. The pole is held in a vertical position by the columns of the testing machine. A gain about 1 inch deep is cut in the side of the pole, and the cross-

¹ See Forest Service Circular 204, "Strength Tests of Cross-arms," by T. R. C. Wilson.

arm is fastened into it by a 5%-inch bolt which extends through the pole.

The load is applied to the cross-arm by rods passing through the pinholes in the arm. Nuts on these rods pull down on wooden bearing blocks shaped to fit the upper side of the arm. The lower ends of these rods are attached to a system of equalizing levers (c, d, and e) whose arrangement is such that the rods transmit equal loads to the cross-arms.

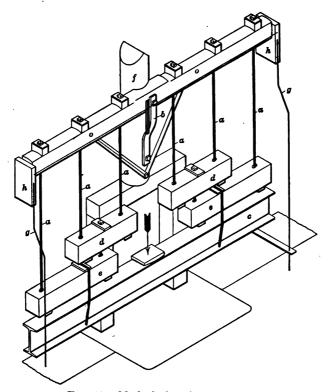


Fig. 46.—Method of testing cross-arms.

Blocks, "h," are each attached to the cross-arm by a nail driven into the center of its end. These blocks are held vertical by the guide rods, "g." A nail is driven part way into the front edge of each block and in line with the center of the cross-arm. Between these two nails is stretched a fine wire, which is kept taut by a rubber band. The movement of this wire with respect to a scale in the center of the arm marks the deflection.

A 1-inch moisture disk and an 8-inch specimen for test in compression parallel to grain were secured from each arm after the bending test was completed.

The average values from the tests are given in Table 13. The load at ½-inch deflection is an approximate measure of the stiffness. "Work to maximum load" is a measure of the toughness. The maximum load is the measure of the strength or ability to withstand a slowly applied load.

Since the longleaf pine arms with 75 per cent. of heart were stronger than those with 100 per cent., and those with 50 per cent. were weaker, other factors than the relative amounts of heartwood and sapwood must have a determining influence on the strength.

There was a very considerable difference in the strength of the natural and treated shortleaf pine arms. Just how much of this difference should be attributed to the treatment it was impossible to determine.

Both the strength values and the manner of failure show that white cedar is considerably weaker than the other species. The failure was in nearly all cases by short brash tension. The numerous small knots and the large season checks seem to have had little influence on the failures.

In many cases the principal failure was at the first pinhole from the center; and in view of this fact, particular attention should be given in grading or selecting arms, to defects near the center or the first pinholes. Knots on the upper side of the arms near these points are especially to be avoided.

The average load borne by the southern white cedar cross-arms, the weakest group, was 5,000 pounds, the load being applied vertically. Careful estimate indicates that the resistance of these arms to side pull is at least 4,000 pounds. This is more than sufficient, under any conditions of service because it is much greater than the side load that can be sustained by poles. In tests, poles have not withstood an average side pull of much more than 3,000 pounds, and usually have failed at less than 2,000.

In the case of sleet or snow, if the ice coating on the wires gives each strand a diameter of 1 inch, a wind pressure of 27 pounds per square foot would be sufficient to break the pole, assuming that the poles have a resistance to side pressure of 2,000 pounds and are 150 feet apart. Even under these extreme conditions,

¹ See Telephone Poles, page 88.

TABLE 13.—RESULTS OF TESTS ON CROSS-ARMS

•	Compression parallel to grain	Max. crush- ing strength	lb. per sq. in.	7,080	5,425	8,950	8,940	7,300	5,770	4,700
h group	ıts	Load at Maximum Toughness 15 in. load (work to leffection max. load)	inlb.	2,990	6,888	7,800	7,970	8,400	6,084	3,150
ns in eac	Bending tests	Maximum load	Ιģ	7,590	6,00 7,00 7,00 7,00 7,00 7,00 7,00 7,00	9,01	9,782	900	7,649	(4,800) (4,800)
ıg, 12 arı	-	Load at 1/2 in. deflection	ą	4,050	4,463	5,220	4,770	4,460	3,841	2,860
feet lor	Specific	gravity (dry)		0.48	0.54	0.63	0.63	0.52	:	0.36
ction—6	Į.	ure	per cent.	11.5	13.4	13.5	12.8	13.3	:	14.3
cross se	l	Poo M	per cent. per cent. per cent	•	22	32	-	42	:	81
nches in	5		per cent.	40	44	53	44	46	48	45
4.25 ir	Rings	per inch	_	8	18	19	16	=	==	12
Eighty-four 6-pin arms—3.25 $ imes$ 4.25 inches in cross section—6 feet long, 12 arms in each group		Where obtained		Walville, Wash.	Hattiesburg, Miss.	Hattiesburg, Miss.	Hattiesburg, Miss.	Buell, Va.	Buell, Va.	Norfolk, Va.
Eighty-four 6-pi		Species		Douglas fir	Longleaf pine, graded 50% heart Hattiesburg, Miss.	Longleaf pine, graded 75% heart Hattiesburg, Miss.	Longleaf pine, graded 100% heart Hattiesburg, Miss.	Shortleaf pine	Shortleaf pine, creosoted	White cedar

1 Values in parentheses are the estimated maximum loads for arms 4.10 × 3.16 inches in cross section—the average size of the Douglas fir arms.

the cross-arm would have to resist stresses equivalent to those imposed by a load of only 875 pounds, applied as in the tests, so that even the weakest of the arms tested would have more than sufficient strength to withstand a force which would break the average pole.

Where there are abrupt changes of grade in a line, as in the case of one pole being higher than those adjacent on either side, the downward pull on the cross-arm depends on the stress of the wires and their inclination from the horizontal. If six No. 8 wires are stretched to their maximum strength, assumed to be 60,000 pounds per square inch, they can exert a pull of 7,670 pounds. If a cross-arm on the middle pole had the average strength of southern white cedar, it could not be broken by such a pull unless the pole were at least 45 feet higher than the two at each side, the spans being 150 feet. Such an abrupt change in grade is rare in practice. If the cross-arm were weakened to 60 per cent. of its air-dry strength, which would correspond to a green or water-soaked condition, the arm would not break unless the difference in height were at least 25 feet.

All things considered, cross-arms of the species and dimensions tested are strong enough for ordinary use. Their strength is relatively of much more importance when they are longer. The ability of the timber to resist decay, and the methods of preventing its decay are considerations of greater importance than strength in the species and sizes tested.

PACKING BOXES

COMPRESSION AND DROP TESTS

In order to determine the relative ability of three styles of boxes, nailed, wirebound, and dovetailed, to stand rough usage, tests were made¹ on three sizes of each, "small," "medium," and "large." The capacity of the three sizes was, respectively, 6, 12, and 20 one-gallon cans 4×6 inches in cross section and 10 inches long.

Each style and size of box was tested in three ways, by endwise compression, by diagonal compression, and by dropping. The results with descriptions of the boxes are given in Table 14.

¹ See Forest Service *Circular* 214 "Tests of Packing Boxes of Various Forms," by John A. Newlin.

Endwise Compression.—In the endwise compression tests the box was compressed between two flat surfaces in the direction of its largest dimension. In this test the load which the box will stand depends largely upon the character and thickness of the material of which it is made, and the construction plays a relatively unimportant part. Most of the nailed boxes were

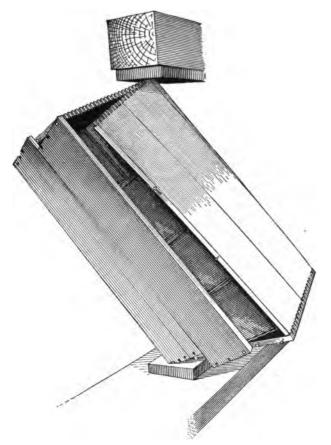


Fig. 47.—Method of conducting diagonal compression test.

constructed with two battens on each end, so that only two of the vertical faces had a good bearing. Thus the loads were less than these boxes might be expected to carry, judging from the thickness of the material. The wires of the wirebound boxes prevented buckling of the sides to a large extent and caused

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			Endwise compression Endwise compression (2 tests averaged for each value) (3 tests averaged for each value)	En (2 tests :	Endwise compression (2 tests averaged for each value)	sion ch value)	Dia (3 tests	Diagonal compression (3 tests averaged for each value)	esion ach value)
Class and size	Type	Weight	Material and construction	Maximum load	Maximum Compression load at max. load	Toughness (work to max. load)	Maximum load	Maximum Compression load at max. load	Toughness (work to max. load)
		Ąį		Ą	ij	inlb.	ď	ij	inlb.
	Nailed	6.4	White pine: %-in. sides, 1/2-in.	11,980	0.0	248	793	2.10	1,161
11000	Dovetailed	7.1	White and Norway pine: 7/6-	15,500	0.12	840	1,033	0.67	453
8½×10¾×19 in.	Dovetailed	7.6	White and Norway pine: 74e-	18,500	0.12	1,020	1,563	1.17	1,737
	Wirebound	5.1	Red gum: Me-in. veneer, 4 cleats.	6,260	0.10	332	1,603	4.70	5,127
	Nailed	10.8	White pine: 34-in. ends, 2	9,140	0.09	400	957	3.3	2,253
	Dovetailed	11.1	White and Norway pine: 7/6-	21,500	0.17	1,320	1,127	1.2	817
Medium	Dovetailed	11.8	White and Norway pine: 7/6-	20,750	0.15	1,350	1,567	1.87	1,967
	Wirebound	7.8	Red gum: 716-in. veneer, 4	7,260	0.44	2,616	1,783	7.2	8,640
	Wirebound	10.5	Red gum: \mathcal{Y}_{4} -in. resawed, 4 cleats and 1 batten at each end	11,590	0.16	1,160	1,607	4.2	4,227
	Nailed	25.5	White pine: %-in. sides and	29,150	0.29	4,160	1,357	6.3	5,893
Large 17 × 103 × × 3112 in	Dovetailed	20.6	White and Norway pine: 9/6-	26,550	0.22	2,675	1,985	6.9	4,055
	Wirebound	14.0	Red gum: 4-in. resawed, 4 clears and I batten at each end.	12,000	0.23	1,520	1,930	6.2	7,873

these boxes to give results relatively high for the thickness of the material. The actual loads supported by the wirebound boxes, however, were lower than for the dovetailed and for most of the nailed boxes.

Diagonal Compression.—In the diagonal compression test illustrated in Fig. 47, the box was compressed along a line connecting diagonally opposite corners. This test produces stress in every part of the box, and the result of the test is the same regardless of which corner receives the load. The test causes failure of the box at its weakest point and thus points out the weak features of its construction. The dovetailed boxes with thick ends and the wirebound boxes withstood about the same loads. The dovetailed boxes with thin ends and the nailed boxes gave much lower values.

In shock-resisting ability, as shown by the product of the average load from 0 to the maximum and the amount of distortion or crushing, the dovetailed boxes with thin ends gave exceedingly low values. Those with thick ends gave much higher values, yet not as high as were given by the nailed boxes other than those with single piece ends. The wirebound boxes show much the highest shock-resisting ability. In stiffness or rigidity the dovetailed boxes were much superior to the others tested. This is shown by the lower values for compression at maximum load.

Drop Tests.—In the drop test the box was suspended with its diagonal corners in a vertical line and then allowed to drop 1 foot. Each drop was made 6 inches higher than the preceding one and the test continued until the cans fell from the box. Figure 48 shows the method of conducting drop tests.

Two forms of construction gave poor results, the nailed boxes with single piece ends and the dovetailed boxes with thin ends. The wirebound boxes showed great ability to withstand the drop test and were quite far ahead of the nailed boxes in this respect. The dovetailed boxes with thick ends were much inferior to the wirebound boxes and somewhat inferior to the nailed boxes with cleated ends.

The failure of nailed boxes with single piece ends without cleats shows this to be a very poor construction; 12 out of 18 such boxes subjected to drop or diagonal compression tests had both ends split completely in two. The nails driven into the ends of the boards showed very slight resistance to withdrawal. In the

case of boxes with cleated ends, failures did not occur in that portion of the box. The chief source of weakness was the withdrawal of the nails holding the top. bottom, and sides to the ends.

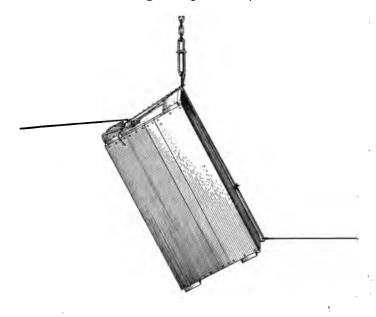




Fig. 48.—Method of conducting drop test.

An end made of thinner boards with four cleats of a wood of greater nail-holding power would probably give better results. The tests show that the single piece end is a poor form of construction and indicate the necessity of using, for certain parts, a wood that will resist the withdrawal of nails.

The wirebound boxes tested showed a well-balanced construction. The top, bottom, and sides were held firmly to the ends by the wires and by staples driven in red gum cleats. The strength of the wirebound boxes increased with the thickness of the lumber and the size of the wire. In all of the tests the wires were an important element of strength.

The thin end dovetailed boxes showed an unbalanced construction, since the joints did not hold. The thick end boxes were much better. In both cases the tongue-and-groove joints were weak features of construction. When the joints in adjacent sides and ends were in the same plane the box was materially weakened. The greater rigidity of these boxes resulted in less damage to the contents when failure occurred.

TESTS BY A REVOLVING DRUM MACHINE

The Machine.—In order to secure a method of testing boxes by which the results could be more easily correlated with the conditions of service and by which the tests could be made in a shorter time, a revolving drum box testing machine was developed.¹ This machine consists of a hexagonal drum 4 feet long (see Fig. 49). Each of the six sides is 3 feet 6 inches long. The drum is mounted on a frame, so that it can be revolved. lined with steel and provided with fixed internal baffles or hazards which cause the box to slide from side to side of the machine and to fall in different ways on the sides, ends, and corners as the drum is slowly revolved. The speed that gives the best results has been found to be 156 revolutions per minute. The machine in Fig. 49 is adapted only for boxes up to a certain Its operation is intended to be similar to the roughest handling which a box should receive in service and to measure ability to stand such usage. The machine does not, of course, measure the resistance of a box to static load, such as it would receive if placed at the bottom of a stack of boxes.

The Boxes Tested.—A series of tests was made on 185 nailed and 75 wirebound boxes. Part were built to hold two dozen No. 3 cans¹ and part to hold two dozen No. 2 cans.² The species

¹ For details of the development of this machine, see "Proceedings of American Society for Testing Materials—1916," "The Development of a Box Testing Machine and Some Results of Tests," by J. A. Newlin and T. R. C. Wilson, U. S. Forest Service.

² These cans are the sizes ordinarily used for tomatoes, peas, etc.

of wood used in making the boxes included white pine, southern yellow pine, yellow birch, aspen ("popple"), yellow poplar (tulip tree), and red gum.

In the nailed boxes the end construction included single piece ends, 2 piece cleated ends, 2 piece ends with corrugated fasteners,



Fig. 49.—Box-testing machine.

and dovetailed ends. The thickness of the ends was $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{9}{16}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, and $\frac{7}{8}$ inch. The thickness of the sides, tops, and bottoms was $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch sawed lumber and $\frac{3}{16}$, $\frac{7}{32}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{9}{32}$ and $\frac{5}{16}$ inch rotary cut veneer. The boxes were nailed with 4, 5, 6, and 7d. cement-coated nails—4 to 9 nails to the nailing edge.

The wirebound boxes were bound with No. 16 and No. 15 wires stapled with 14, 18, 20, and 24 staples per wire, and had stapled, nailed, and loose ends.

Deductions from Tests.—Nailed Boxes.—The tests showed plainly that the resistance of many of the nailed boxes to rough usage could be greatly increased by proper nailing. The number of nails per nailing edge proved to have a considerable influence on the resistance of the box. Figure 50 shows the relation of number of nails in the boxes to the amount of rough handling required to break the boxes. In Fig. 50 the average number of revolutions of the drum required to cause breakage and loss of contents in boxes with 7 nails per nailing edge is taken as 100.

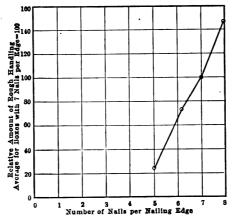


Fig. 50.—Tests on nailed boxes for two dozen No. 3 cans; relation of number of nails to amount of rough handling required to cause loss of contents.

It will be noted that boxes with 5 nails per nailing edge stood only a little over one-fifth as much as boxes with 7 nails per nailing edge. In boxes of the kind and size tested, 7 properly driven nails per nailing edge may be considered as good practice.

The single piece end without cleats was shown in the compression and drop tests to be a poor form of construction. This conclusion is further substantiated by the drum tests. The resistance of white pine, red gum, and aspen boxes with 2 piece ends was increased 50 per cent. by the substituting of cleats $(3\%'' \times 11\%'')$ for corrugated fasteners. Failure in the uncleated boxes was due to splitting of the ends, and did not occur at the joint. Similar tests on yellow pine boxes with and without cleats

showed an even greater increase in resisting power in the cleated boxes.

Several cases were observed where the nails in boxes for test were over-driven. In such cases the wood fibers were crushed and damaged and the board easily separated from the nail by pulling the head through the board or pulling the board endwise from the nail. Nails driven so that the heads are flush with the surface of the boards give the best results.

In a number of boxes which were stored in a warm room before testing it was apparent that further drying had taken place, with resultant shrinkage. This shrinkage causes a side pull on the nails, which loosens them slightly. If the drying is carried far enough, splitting at the nails occurs. In either case the resisting power of the box is lowered. The storage of boxes in a warm room should evidently be avoided. It is also advisable to dry lumber for nailed boxes until it contains about 15 per cent. moisture, since this is the average condition that lumber would reach when stored in an unheated building or when in transit in closed cars.

The following classification of box woods is based on the various box tests made by the Forest Service and on the tests to determine the properties of woods, including strength, hardness, etc., and nail-holding ability.

CLASSIFICATION OF BOX WOODS

Group 1.—Woods which are soft and from which nails are easily pulled. These woods require comparatively large nails. For boards 1/2 inch thick 5d. nails spaced 2 inches apart are suitable. For boards 1/2 inch thick 7d. nails are needed spaced 21/2 inches apart.

Alpine fir		Mangolia
Aspen		Norway pine
Balsam fir		Noble fir
Basswood		Redwood
Buckeye		Spruce
Butternut	•	Sugar pine
Cedar		Western yellow pine
Chestnut		White fir
Cottonwood		White pine
Cucumber		Willow
Cypress		Yellow poplar

Lodgepole pine

Group 2.-Woods which are intermediate in softness. These are the

harder coniferous woods, which are more subject to shakes and checks and to splitting in nailing or from rough usage than the woods in Groups 1 or 3. These woods are also more variable in strength and nail-holding ability. Ends made of these woods are preferably cleated. Size and spacing of nails are the same as in Group 1.

Douglas fir North Carolina pine
Hemlock Southern yellow pine
Larch

Group 3.—Woods which are comparatively hard and which are high in nail-holding power. These woods allow the use of smaller nails and thinner material than the woods in Groups 1 and 2. Box boards from woods in Group 3 may be $\frac{1}{16}$ inch or $\frac{1}{16}$ inch thinner than those from woods in Groups 1 and 2. For boards $\frac{1}{16}$ inch thick ($\frac{1}{16}$ inch less than Group 1) 4d. nails are satisfactory. For boards $\frac{3}{16}$ inch thick ($\frac{1}{16}$ inch less than Group 1) 6d. nails are suitable.

Ash · Maple
Beech Oak
Birch Red gum
Black gum Sycamore
Elm Tupelo
Hackberry

Wirebound Boxes.—The tests on wirebound boxes, in which the binding wires are stapled to the sides, top, and bottom, showed that the number of staples was an important factor in the resistance of the box. In boxes with comparatively few staples the resistance of the box was lowered by the veneer tearing out from the staples. Figure 51 shows the relation of the number of staples in the boxes to the amount of rough handling required to break them. In Fig. 51 the average number of revolutions required to cause breakage and loss of contents with 24 staples per wire is taken as 100. The tearing apart of veneer and staples during the test was much less frequent in boxes with not less than 20 staples per wire. The use of staples in securing ends to cleats proved unsatisfactory, unless the staples were driven at an angle to the grain; broad-headed nails gave more uniform results.

The effect of storage conditions on boxes in which veneer was used was even more marked than on boxes made of lumber. Veneer absorbs moisture readily and dries out readily; and con-

sequently, boxes made of veneer, if exposed alternately to humid and dry conditions, will swell and shrink and tend to loosen the fastenings. The tests indicate that the drying of veneer for boxes to about 15 per cent. moisture, as in the case of box lumber, will give the best results. The drying of veneer to considerably below 15 per cent. is of little use as the material will soon reabsorb moisture under ordinary conditions.

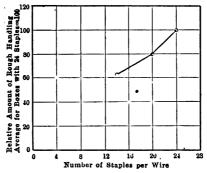


Fig. 51.—Tests of wire-bound boxes for two dozen No. 3 cans; relation of number of staples to amount of rough handling required to cause loss of contents.

WOODEN VEHICLE PARTS

The following laboratory tests¹ were made to find the relative value of different woods for vehicle parts. The material for the tests was furnished in its finished form by manufacturers and the conditions of the test were made to conform as far as possible to the conditions that would occur in actual service.

HICKORY BUGGY SPOKES

Tests were made on hickory buggy spokes to determine whether or not the system of grading was correct and to ascertain the relative strength and toughness of red and of white spokes.

The material tested consisted of 500 1-inch hickory buggy spokes. These were graded at the factory by an experienced foreman, and each grade packed separately. The different

¹ See Forest Service Circular 142, "Tests of Vehicle and Implement Woods," by H. B. Holroyd and H. S. Betts.

grades and the number of spokes in each, as graded at the factory in the order of their recognized commercial value, were as follows:

Grade	Number of spokes
A-white	45
B-white	 45
C-white	45
C-red	45
C-mixed	45
D-white	45
D-red	45
D-mixed	45
E-white	45
E-red	45
Culls	50

The method of testing spokes is shown in Fig. 52. The

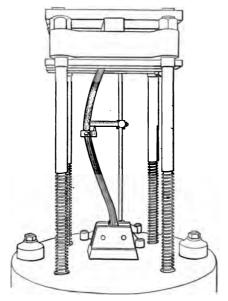


Fig. 52.—Method of testing buggy spokes.

spokes were compressed parallel to the grain and the force applied to the rim end of the spoke through the movable head of the testing machine. The spokes were cut to a length of 21 inches, the length used in the most common size of wheel. The regulation tenon was cut on the rim end, and this tenon was inserted in a hole in an iron block clamped to the movable head of the

testing machine. The heel of the spoke fitted into a second iron block resting on the platform of the machine. Vertically placed in the machine, the spoke was like a column with the rim and hub ends held in the same manner as in a wheel. The amount of bending or transverse deflection at the center was shown by a pointer attached to the spoke, and arranged to move over a horizontal graduated scale. The load at the first visible failure and the maximum load were noted, together with the corresponding deflections at the center; and in each case the test was continued until the spoke had reached a deflection of 2 inches at the center. All spokes were thus subjected to the same conditions.

The factor representing the value of a spoke should include both strength and toughness. The greatest load held up by a spoke is a measure of its strength, and the amount of bending in a spoke when the first crack occurs is a measure of its toughness. The product of these two quantities gives a factor representing both strength and toughness. It is called the resilience factor.

Table 15 gives the results of the tests arranged by grades. From this table it will be seen that the average weight and the average resilience factor were both considerably higher in the A-white spokes than in the other grades. A wide range between the maximum and minimum value for the resilience factor in any grade is noticeable, showing that the quality of the spokes varied in each grade. The C-red spokes have a higher resilience factor than either the C-mixed or C-white; D-red spokes have a higher resilience factor than the D-mixed or D-white; D-red ranks ahead of C-mixed and C-white; E-white has a slightly higher resilience factor than E-red.

In investigating the relation between weight and resilience factor, only clear spokes were used. This was done in order to eliminate the influence of defects such as iron streaks, bird pecks, knots, cross grain, and wormholes. About 230 spokes were used. The weight and resilience factor of each of these spokes is plotted in Fig. 53. In this chart the weight of the spokes is shown on the horizontal scale, and the resilience factor on the vertical scale. The results of the tests, as plotted, are divided into three classes—red, white, and mixed color, distinguished on the diagram by different marks. The average points through which the heavy lines are drawn were obtained by grouping points lying between certain limits of weight. Figure

53 shows that in the case of clear spokes the resilience factor increases directly with the weight in a fairly uniform manner regardless of color and that weight for weight the red and mixed spokes have as great a resilience factor as the white spokes—that is, the red spokes and the white spokes of equal weight are equal in mechanical value.

Defects in spokes commonly include iron streaks, bird pecks, cross grain, knots, and wormholes. A spoke containing a

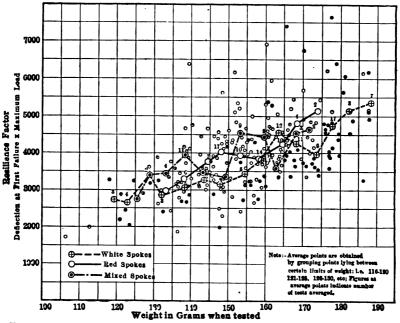


Fig. 53.—Spoke-test chart, showing relation between resilience factor and weight in clear spokes.

wormhole is dangerous, as it is impossible to tell to what extent the spoke has been bored on the inside. Iron streaks are supposed to be caused by the infiltration of foreign coloring matter through bird pecks. Iron streaks and bird pecks, when they show only slightly, apparently do not affect the mechanical qualities of a spoke. They are not generally found in the heaviest spokes, but among those of medium or light weight.

Spokes failing from cross grain generally break into two pieces. Defects have greater weakening effect when near the center than when near the ends. The spoke tests definitely show three

Table 15.—Tests on Hickory Buggy Spokes (One-inch spoke; length 21 inches.)

Grade	Weight	Maximum load	Deflection at maxi- mum load	Deflection at first failure	Resilience factor (maxi- mum load multiplied by deflection at first fail- ure)
A-white:	grams	lb.	in.	in.	inlb.
Average	177.5	3,899	0.28	1.22	4,760
Maximum	190.3	5,005	0.50	1.75	8,080
Minimum	165.5	2,750	0.10	0.85	3,270
B-white:		·			
Average	164.5	3,332	0.25	1.31	4,360
Maximum	182.5	4,780	0.52	2.00	6,750
Minimum	146.0	1,615	0.04	0.72	2,740
C-white:		· ·	1	,	
Average	150.5	2,873	0.29	1.22	3,500
Maximum	182.0	4,220	0.46	1.75	6,050
Minimum	119.3	1,720	0.07	0.75	1,875
C-red:					1
Average	157.2	3,080	0.28	1.36	4,190
Maximum	173.3	4,525	0.51	2.00	6,920
Minimum	144.4	1,835	0.80	0.08	2,150
C-mixed:					
Average	155.5	3,102	0.25	1.27	3,940
Maximum	186.0	4,095	0.44	2.00	8,710
Minimum	132.0	2,110	0.05	0.75	2,310
D-white:			1		
Average	144.2	2,815	0.28	1.13	3,180
Maximum	176.6	3,835	0.55	1.75	5,360
Minimum	118.2	2,025	(a)	0.65	2,045
D-red:					
Average	148.6	3,235	0.29	1.25	4,050
Maximum	174.7	4,950	0.66	2.00	5,620
Minimum	131.1	2,010	0.10	0.40	1,110
D-mixed:					1
Average	145.2	3,171	0.27	1.24	3,930
Maximum	166.2	4,250	0.60	1.90	6,540
Minimum	112.8	2,065	0.02	0.70	2,000
E-white:		}			
Average	147.8	• 2,985	0.25	1.13	3,370
Maximum	174.9	4,180	0.50	2.00	5,920
Minimum	124.7	1,400	0.04	0.75	1,680
E-red:					
Average	146.1	3,009	0.24	1.08	3,250
Maximum	180.2	4,500	0.45	1.85	7,080
Minimum	1 0 6.5	2,050	0.05	0.50	1,600
Culls:			1		1
Average	156.8	2,738	0.27	1.18	3,230
Maximum	191.4	4,025	0.50	2.00	6,200
Minimum	116.5	1,775	0.10	0.33	805

a Reading not obtained.

things: (1) That the system of grading buggy spokes did not correspond to their strength and toughness, (2) that the factor denoting the strength and toughness of clear spokes varies directly with the weight, and (3) that red, white, or mixed spokes of equal weight have practically the same resilience factor.

OAK AND HICKORY BUGGY SHAFTS

The object of the buggy shaft tests was to determine the relative mechanical properties of hickory shafts graded as XX, which is a third grade, and shafts made of red oak, to show the possibilities of the latter in shaft construction.

The shafts were 1% by 1% inches. The stock was secured in Mississippi, about 100 miles south of Memphis, Tenn. The material was kiln dried, steamed, and bent. Ninety-two shafts were tested—46 XX hickory and 46 red oak.

The conditions under which shafts are broken in actual service are so varied that no attempt was made to reproduce any one of them exactly. The rigging for testing the shafts was arranged to hold the butt end of the shaft so that the main part projected horizontally. A vertical force was then applied near the point, and the shaft bent upward. The amount of bending or deflection near the point and the corresponding force required to produce this deflection were noted at regular intervals. The tests were continued after maximum load until there was less than 20 pounds pull on the shaft, or until the shaft came in contact with the head of the testing machine.

The weights of the two sets of shafts when dry were about the same; but the oak shafts, as they were tested, were slightly lighter than the hickory and contained 1.1 per cent. less moisture.

The oak shafts closely approximated the hickory in strength values, but at the maximum load had 7½ per cent. less deflection. In only one quality was the oak decidedly inferior to the hickory—the ability to sustain a load after failure. Thirty of the 46 oak shafts were broken in two, and only 9 sustained more than 20 pounds load at the end of the tests; only 14 of the hickory shafts were broken in two, and 24, or more than half of them, sustained more than 20 pounds at the end of the test.

A comparison of the maximum and minimum values given in Table 16 shows that the oak shafts were of much more uniform quality than the hickory, in spite of the fact that many of the complete failures in the oak shafts were due to cross or spiral grained pieces that would be eliminated by careful inspection of market material.

While these shaft tests are valuable as showing the possibility of using red oak instead of XX hickory, they can not be taken as conclusive for a number of reasons. First, the tests were too

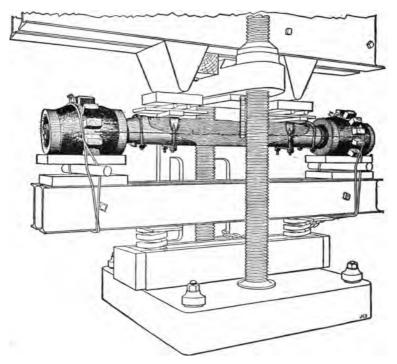


Fig. 54.—Method of testing wagon axles.

few to give sufficiently definite results. Second, the oak shafts were not as carefully selected as commercial stock should be; straight-grained material would be to the advantage of oak in comparison with the lower grade of hickory. Third, the grading of the hickory down to the XX quality was based largely on the red color, which, as shown by the spoke tests, is no criterion of degree of strength; on a strength basis some of the red hickory shafts might have belonged in a higher grade.

TABLE 16.—SUMMARY OF TESTS ON BUGGY SHAFTS

	Stiff-	ness factor ²	GI	28 38 38	68 43 88
	o strain	After maximum load	inlb.	524 2,176 0	295 1,391 0
	Work ¹ required to strain shafts to—	Maximum	inlb.	2,264 3,620 800	2,256 3,696 1,408
	Work	nit i	inlb.	335 650 151	348 630 203
	Fiber stress	stic At Els	lb. per sq. in.	10,527 14,180 7,710	11,318 13,360 8,130
2	Fiber	15 E	lb. per sq. in.	6,190 9,620 3,970	6,474 8,460 4,640
COMMUNICATION OF THE PROPERTY	Deflection	stic At At e lit load	'ë	30.7 44.0 17.0	28.4 37.0 23.0
	Defi	At ela lim	in.	10.0 14.0 7.0	9.9 14.0 7.0
	pæd	At maximum	Ib.	111 153 79	122 142 100
	Load	At elastic limit	ıb.	65 101 42	70 90 56
	Specific	gravity		0.632 0.754 0.534	0.627 0.657 0.597
	Per cent. Specific	Weight of moist- at test ure		10.9 13.0 9.9	9.8 9.0
		Weight at test	Ib.	4.22 5.11 3.32	4.19 4.57 3.97
	i	Kind of wood	V V history	Average Maximum Minimum	Merage Maximum Minimum

	S. 88	(a)	8.06	99.3 (a) 99.3 108 110	110	8	92.2	104.8	99 92.5 104.8 107.5 104 99.6 56.3 107.5	10	9.06	56.3	107.5
Work, in inch-pounds, done in straining a shaft to the elastic limit, to its maximum load, and the work done beyond the maximum load in straining the shaft to the end of the test. Work is a combination of force (average load) and distance through which the force acts (deflection of shaft). The work after maximum load is a measure of the toughness of a shaft, and shows the ability of a shaft to resist shock after there is a partial failure. 3 Stiffness factor, the load required the point of the shaft 8 inches. a The oak had 1.1 per cent, less moisture than the hickory.	unds, don of the te load is a te load req per cent.	e in strain set. Work measure o quired to c	ning a sh k is a cc of the tou leffect th	aft to the ombination ighness of the point of	elastic limit of force (a a shaft, and the shaft 8 haft 8 harv.	t, to its m verage lo	aximum lo ad) and dis se ability o	ad, and th tance thre f a shaft t	e work don vugh which o resist sho	the force ok after the	the maxim acts (deflecters is a pa	um load in tion of sha rtial failure	straining ft). The

RED OAK IN PER CENT. OF XX HICKORY

MAPLE AND HICKORY WAGON AXLES

Tests were made to ascertain the relative strength of maple and hickory in the form of wagon axles, and to compare the efficiency of several styles of axle reinforcement.

The material consisted of 48 rear axles of the common farm wagon design—24 of hickory and 24 of maple. Three styles of construction were represented for each species—thimble skein, thimble skein trussed, and long-sleeve skein trussed. The axles selected were as nearly uniform in quality of wood as could be secured, and were representative of average seasoned stock.

Figure 54 shows the method of testing. The axles, with hubs placed on each skein, were mounted on two I-beams, which rested upon the platform of a testing machine. Loads were applied by the testing machine at the two hounds by means of a straining beam attached to the movable head of the machine. Heavy car springs were placed between the I-beams and the platform of the testing machine, so as to make the load follow the axles after failure occurred, and reproduce the continuous gravity action that would occur in a failure under service conditions. Rollers were used under all bearing plates in order to insure freedom in horizontal movement at the bearing points. The load was applied continuously until the maximum load was passed.

Table 17.—Strength of Maple and Hickory Axles Reduced to Same Size

		. Ma	ple		Hick	ory
Style of axle	Maximum load under test	of bick-	Maximum load (ad- justed to same sec- tion as hickory)	Maple in per cent. of hick- ory	Maximum load under test	Hickory taken as 100 per cent.
Thimble skein:	1ь.		lb.		1ь.	
Average	19,458	104	16,600	89	18,678	100
Maximum	24,100	120	20,600	103	20,000	100
Minimum	13,430	84	11,500	72	16,050	100
Thimble skein trussed:						
Average	23,296	109	20,500	96	21,414	100
Maximum	26,890	108	23,700	96	24,850	100
Minimum	21,240	110	18,700	97	19,350	100
Long-sleeve skein trussed:		1	}		, 1	
Average	22,601	104	22,200	102	21,760	100
Maximum	26,510	109	26,000	107	24,240	100
Minimum	17,450	92	17,100	90	19,030	100

Tables 17 and 18 give the results of the tests. An adjusted set of results was calculated because the maple axles had a

slightly larger cross section than the hickory. In the table the maximum load for the maple axles was reduced so as to give the load that would be supported by maple axles of the same size in cross section as the hickory axles. In all three sets the maximum load carried by the maple axles was slightly greater than that carried by the hickory axles. The adjusted maximum load carried by the maple axles, however, was less than that carried by the hickory axles in the case of the thimble skein and the thimble-skein trussed axles, and approximately the same in the case of the long-sleeve skein-trussed axles. It is noticeable that the strength values were more constant in the hickory than in the maple axles, which indicates a greater variation in the maple stock.

TABLE 18.—PER CENT. OF MAXIMUM LOAD SUPPORTED AFTER FAILURE IN WAGON AXLE TESTS

Maple	Style of axle.	Hickory
1	Thimble skein	36
25	Thimble skein trussed	81
21	Long-sleeve skein trussed	53

The amount of bending or deflection at maximum load was greater in the hickory axles than in the maple axles in all three sets, showing the greater toughness of hickory.

The hickory axles were able to stand a greater shock than the maple axles. The load supported after failure at maximum



Fig. 55.—Maple wagon axles after test; thimble skein.

load was also much larger in the case of the hickory axles. When bending was continued beyond the maximum load, the maple axles had little strength left in them to support a load. The hickory axles, on the contrary, carried a large per cent. of their maximum load when subjected to the same conditions.

In the two sets of trussed axles the carrying capacity, ability to resist shock, and the load supported after failure at maximum load were all considerably greater than the same factors in the



Fig. 56.—Hickory wagon axles after test; thimble skein.

untrussed axles. In nearly every case the clamp and truss slipped while the axle was under test.

In a number of axles received for test the manufacturers had



Fig. 57.—Maple wagon axles after test; long-sleeved skein trussed.

allowed the shoulder on the ends of the truss to project beyond the clamp. This allows the axle to bend considerably before the truss shoulder is pulled against the clamp and the truss



Fig. 53.—Hickory wagon axles after test; long-sleeved skein trussed.

brought into action. Out of the 32 trussed axles, in only one instance did the truss rod break.

The character of the fractures in the tested axles is shown in Figs. 55 to 58. These figures were made from photographs of

individual axles taken after test. The maple untrussed axles, Fig. 55, generally failed near the center, showing a short fracture, while the failure in the hickory axles of the same design, Fig. 56, occurred near the skeins and showed a long, fibrous break.

In the trussed axles, Figs. 57 and 58, the fractures were of the same general character, although less prominent. Maple is subject to a spiral grain difficult of detection, which sometimes causes sudden and complete failure.

OAK, SOUTHERN PINE, AND DOUGLAS FIR WAGON POLES

The object of the wagon-pole tests was to check the correctness of the grading of select and common oak poles, to ascertain the utility of the truss, and to determine the value of southern pine

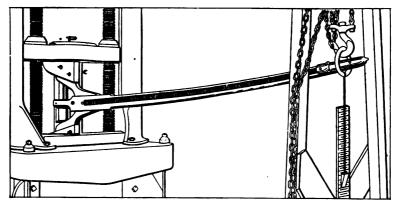


Fig. 59.—Method of testing wagon poles; trussed pole under test.

and Douglas fir for pole manufacture, as compared with oak. The poles tested were of the common farm-wagon design and were representative of the respective grades. The following comprised the series of tests:

- 10 oak poles, select grade.
- 10 oak poles, common grade.
- 10 oak poles, common grade, trussed.
- 10 southern pine poles.
- 10 Douglas fir poles.

All the poles were of the same dimensions.

A device similar to the hounds on a wagon held the rear end of the pole rigid (see Fig. 59). The point of the pole was de-

flected by means of a tackle and suitable rigging, which transferred the deflecting load to a platform scale where it was measured. Thus the poles were tested under a strain similar to that which occurs in service when the front wheels of a wagon are blocked and the team turns sidewise.

The results of the tests are given in Table 19.

The select poles were superior to the common poles in strength, toughness, ability to resist shock, and stiffness by from 23 to 42 per cent. The poles appear to have been graded upon a correct mechanical basis.

The values for strength and stiffness were slightly higher in the case of the trussed poles. In toughness and shock-resisting ability, however, the reverse was the case. It is to be noted that more of the common untrussed poles than of the common trussed poles were cross-grained. The truss does not appear to be of any decided value from the standpoint of strength.

In maximum load and stiffness the pine poles rank between the oak select and oak common poles. In toughness and ability to resist shock the values for the pine poles are less than for either set of oak poles.

The fir poles were superior to the oak poles when not strained beyond the elastic limit. In strength and stiffness the fir ranked between the two grades of oak. The toughness and ability to resist shock was less in the fir poles than in the oak poles. The material in the fir poles was of a more uniform grade than in the oak or pine poles.

Douglas Fir and Southern Pine Cultivator Poles

Tests were made to determine the comparative value of Douglas fir and southern yellow pine for use in cultivator pole manufacture. The material consisted of 10 Douglas fir and 10 southern pine cultivator poles of the kind used in walking cultivators. The method of testing was similar to that used in testing the wagon poles (see Fig. 59).

Table 20 gives the results of the tests. There was little difference between the pine and fir poles for most of the qualities measured, but the range was much greater in the pine poles than in the fir poles. This indicates less variation of stock in the fir poles.

The load on the end of the fir poles at the elastic limit exceeded

T	ABLE 19	.—Som	MARY OF	TESTS	TABLE 19.—SUMMARY OF TESTS ON WAGON POLES	on Pol	8.0			
7 - 12A	:	Ä	Load	End d	End deflection	E Spe	Fiber stress	Work! re strain ;	Work! required to strain poles to—	Stiff.
DOOM IS DETAY	weight	Elastic limit	Maximum	Elastic limit	Maximum load	Elastic limit	Maximum load	Elastic limit	Maximum load	factor a
1.0	Ą	Ą	Ą	i.	ii.	lb. per	lb. per eq. in.	inlb.	inlb.	Jè.
Average: Maximum Minimum	38.0 40.0 35.5	394 550 250	730 882 550	14.4 18.0 10.1	41.5 50.0 29.5	6,591 9,150 4,170	11,138 13,670 8,820	2,840 4,950 1,263	19,606 28,500 9,100	313 522 230
Ast, common: Average Maximum Minimum	35.8 33.8 8.8	337 450 240	564 882 412	14.8 17.3 10.1	32.0 48.0 17.8	5,650 3,990	8,897 12,800 6,950	2,490 3,380 1,212	11,450 28,100 3,850	241 402 143
Ast. common, trussed: Meximum Minimum	:::	374 460 280	584 765 400	15.7 20.0 12.6	30.7 42.0 16.8	6,104 7,700 4,490	9,045 11,850 6,350	2,940 3,750 1,760	10,370 14,850 4,050	253 365 189
Southern pine: Average Maximum Minimum	34.0 32.0	439 520 320	644 735 492	15.5 17.4 12.5	26.3 31.5 23.0	7,034 8,260 5,070	10,000 11,300 7,710	3,400 4,160 2,160	9,255 11,650 6,000	289 223 223
Douglas II: Average Maximum Minimum.	33.6 36.3 38.3	467 590 415	608 683 520	16.6 20.7 15.0	27.3 43.0 21.0	7,136 8,950 6,100	9,027 10,050 7,660	3,880 5,690 3,230	9,735 19,550 5,900	270 325 220

. 100 77 81 92 86	pue (peo
100 58 53 57 47	a combination of force (average load) s
100 103 120 137	tion of for
100 80 81 81 81	a combina
100 86 93 107 108	Work is
100 77 74 63 66	mum load
100 103 108 115	to its max
38 88 83 83	lastic limit and to its maximum load. Work is the shaft 8 inches.
100 86 112 119	the clastic of the sh
Oak, select. Oak, common. Oak, common. Southern pine. Douglas fir.	Work, in inch-pounds, done in straining a shaft to distance through which the force acts (defection of shat Stiffness factor, the load required to defect the points.

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF WAGON POLES

that for the pine poles by 5 per cent. while the strength of the fir poles at maximum load was 5 per cent. less than that of the pine poles. The pine poles were inferior to the fir poles in stiffness, but had a greater ability to resist shock.

In both sets of poles the majority of failures occurred near the point where the pole is attached to the framework of the cultivator. In the pine poles failure was complete in 7 out of 10, the poles breaking in two. In fir poles complete failure occurred in but 3 out of 10.

DEDUCTION FROM THE TESTS OF VEHICLE PARTS

The foregoing tests, while in some cases only suggestive, because of the small number of samples tested, nevertheless show the value of laboratory tests as an aid in solving problems connected with the grading of vehicle wood stock, and the substitution of new species for old. The samples, representing different grades, or classes, were selected by experts with a large experience in the vehicle industries, and were thoroughly representative.

The spoke tests show an error of more than 50 per cent. in the grading system used, which was largely due to the traditional prejudice and consequent discrimination against red hickory. No red spokes were allowed in the A and B grades, yet the tests show that a large proportion of the red spokes included in the lower grades should, because of their strength and toughness, have been included in the highest grades.

The superiority of hickory in toughness and shock-resisting ability, as compared with maple, is brought out in the axle tests. It is probable that no native species combines such high values for strength, toughness, and other mechanical properties as the higher grades of hickory, which on this account are well fitted for such parts as are subjected to the greatest shock. The shaft tests indicate that red oak may be substituted for hickory of the lower grades in shaft manufacture.

The difference in toughness between oak and such woods as southern pine and Douglas fir is shown in the results of the pole tests. Both of these latter species, however, when carefully selected, appear to be promising substitutes for second-grade oak in pole manufacture.

The terms "second growth" and "forest growth" are so loosely applied in the designation of grades that they are confusing

TABLE 20.—SUMMARY OF TESTS ON CULTIVATOR POLES

		Load on	Load on end of pole	End d	End deflection	Fibe	Fiber stress	Work¹ r strain j	Work¹ required to strain poles to—	Stiff-
Kind of wood	Weight	Elastic limit	Elastic Maximum limit	Elastic limit	Maximum load	Elastic limit	Elastic Maximum limit	Elastic limit	Maximum load	ness factor ²
Tourston fe.	Ą	-ģi	.di	ij	ij	lb. per sq. in.	lb. per sq. in.	inlb.	inlb.	lb.
Average Maximum Minimum	20.1 23.3 16.5	305 340 230	391 472 308	14.9 19.7 11.7	20.6 26.6 13.0	9,362 10,650 6,810	11,782 14,330 9,650	2,277 3,250 1,580	4,872 6,800 2,240	220 268 164
Southern yellow pine: Average. Maximum. Minimum.	20.6 23.5 15.5	289 440 160	413 557 200	15.9 19.9 11.9	26.1 36.0 13.5	8,535 13,300 4,740	11,682 16,100 5,930	2,300 3,830 952	6,654 10,400 1,640	192 275 127
Dog	GLAS FI	R IN PE	R CENT.	OF SOUT	DOUGLAS FIR IN PER CENT. OF SOUTHERN YELLOW PINE	LOW P	INE			

¹ Work, in inch-pounds, done in straining a shaft to the elastic limit and to its maximum load. Work is a combination of force (average load) and distance through which the force acts (deflection of shaft).

² Stiffness factor, the load required to deflect the point of the shaft 8 inches.

and might well be discontinued. These terms, as used by the trade, distinguish between good and poor wood and disregard the true meaning of the words. In order to use the terms in their correct sense, the particular species and conditions of growth would have to be known for each piece of material. Commercially this is impossible. In reality, a large per cent. of the stock which is classed as "second growth" is "forest grown" stock of good quality. As changes in the forest take place, as a result of lumbering and new growth, it may be asked at what point does the wood cease to be "forest grown" and become "second growth." The manufacturer can not definitely answer this question, and can not tell whether it may not be possible to secure both kinds of stock from the same tree.

The term "black hickory" is also confusing when used to designate a grade, because it is the accepted common name for certain species.

There is much discrimination in the trade against defects such as knots and checks, but little is said about cross-grain. The tests have continually shown that in such material as spokes, axles, and poles, cross-grain is one of the most serious defects. Defects that will be removed in finishing should not be considered defects by the inspector. Clauses in grading rules such as "Clear of any defects impairing the strength" are too indefinite.

Weight is an excellent indication of the strength of dry hickory wood, although but little used in grading rules and specifications at present. The rate of growth that generally indicates heavy and strong material and the location of such material in the cross-section of the tree are shown in the following diagrams.¹

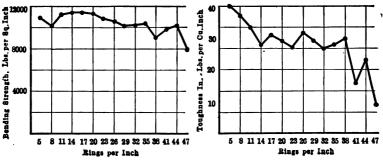
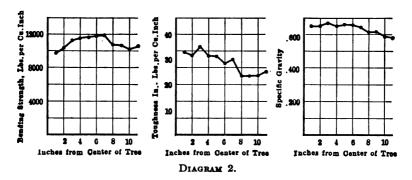


DIAGRAM 1.

¹ For a more detailed discussion of the strength of hickory see Forest Service, *Bulletin* 80, "The Commercial Hickories," by A. T. Boisen and J. A. Newlin.

The two diagrams show the variation in the strength and toughness of hickory for different rates of growth. The diagrams indicate that hickory high in strength and toughness generally has from 5 to 20 rings per inch. Exceptions exist, however, in wood grown in dry situations in which the slow growing material may be strong and tough.



The three diagrams show the variation in the strength, toughness, and specific gravity (dry weight) of hickory at different distances from the center of the tree. In normal trees the strongest wood appears to be from 5 to 7 inches from the center and the toughest wood nearly at the center. Wood 3 to 7 inches from the center is generally high in mechanical properties.

CHAPTER V

THE SEASONING OF WOOD

IMPORTANCE OF PROPER SEASONING METHODS—FIBER SATU-RATION POINT AND SHRINKAGE—HOW WOOD MAY BE INJURED IN SEASONING—AIR SEASONING—RULES FOR PILING LUMBER—KILN DRYING

IMPORTANCE OF PROPER SEASONING METHODS

Practically all wood before being put to use is either seasoned in the air or dried in a kiln. The main objects of seasoning are to increase the durability of the wood in service, to prevent it from shrinking and checking, to increase its strength and stiffness, to prevent it from staining, and to decrease its weight. The sooner wood is seasoned after being cut the less is the chance that it will be injured by the insects which attack unseasoned wood, or that it will decay before the time comes to use it. Wood that is to be treated with preservative needs in nearly all cases to be seasoned as much as wood that is to be used in the natural state.

Wood has a complicated structure, and the walls of its cells shrink and harden when moisture is removed from them, so that unless timber which is to be air-seasoned is piled in the right way, or conditions in the dry kiln are maintained in accordance with certain well-defined physical laws, the material is likely to warp or check, or in some way to be damaged seriously. Until recently proper methods of seasoning received comparatively little attention from manufacturers; and large losses, especially among woods that are difficult to dry, were the rule. Sometimes as much as 20 to 25 per cent. of the seasoned lumber was rendered unfit for the use intended by defects which had their origin in the drying process. Since the quality of the finished product

¹ The sapwood of seasoned hardwood is subject to attack and frequently to serious damage by powder-post insects. See Farmers' *Bulletin* 778, "Powder-Post Damage by Lyctus Beetles to Seasoned Hardwood," by A. D. Hopkins and T. E. Snyder, 1917.

can be impaired seriously by wrong methods, the desirability of taking care to use right methods becomes apparent.

FIBER SATURATION POINT AND SHRINKAGE

Water exists in wood in two conditions: (a) as free water contained in the cell cavities, and (b) as water absorbed in the cell

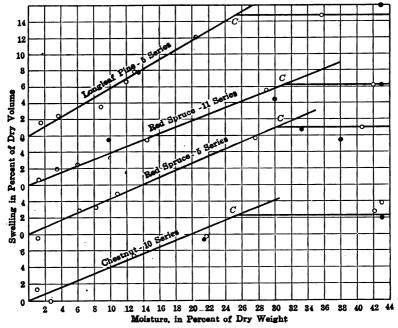


Fig. 60.—Effect of absorption of water on the volume of small, clear pieces of longleaf pine, red spruce, and chestnut. Each point is the average of from 5 to 11 specimens. The fiber-saturation point is at C. The black dots are for specimens that were kiln dried and allowed to reabsorb moisture.

walls. When wood contains just enough water to saturate the cell walls, it is said to be at the "fiber saturation point." Any water in excess of this which the wood may contain is in the form of free water in the cell cavities.

¹ The term "sap" sometimes is used wrongly to mean the moisture in wood, and at other times to mean the sapwood. Sap is formed, mainly in the early spring, in the leaves from water rising from the roots through the sapwood. In the leaves this water is converted into true sap, which contains sugar and soluble gums. The sap descends through the bark and feeds the tissues in process of formation between the bark and the sapwood. The heartwood contains no sap.

Removal of the free water has no apparent effect upon the properties of the wood except to reduce its weight, but as soon as any of the absorbed water is removed the wood begins to

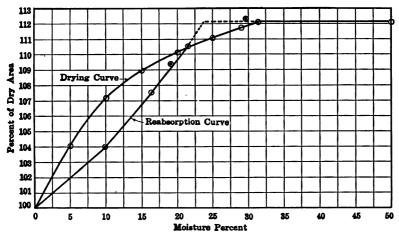


Fig. 61.—Relation between the moisture content and the cross section of small, clear pieces of western hemlock.

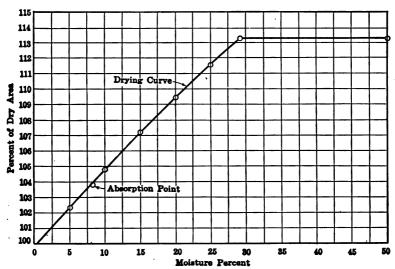


Fig. 62.—Relation between the moisture content and the cross section of small, clear specimens of western larch.

shrink. Since the free water is the first to be removed, shrinkage does not begin, as a general rule, until the fiber saturation point

is reached. In the case of eucalypts and some of the oaks, however, shrinkage begins above this point. For most woods, the fiber saturation point corresponds to a moisture content of from 25 to 30 per cent. of the dry weight of the wood.

If wood below the fiber saturation point is allowed to absorb moisture, it will swell. This swelling for most woods reaches its maximum at the fiber saturation point, and further absorption of moisture has no effect on the size. Figure 60 shows the increase in the volume of several different kinds of wood when allowed to absorb moisture after first being thoroughly dried. Figures 61 and 62 show the relation between the area of the cross section and the moisture content for specimens of western hemlock and

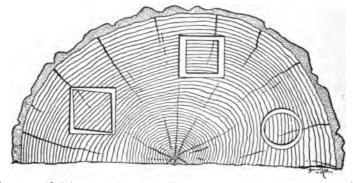


Fig. 63.—Shrinkage as affected by direction of annual rings; approximately twice as great tangentially as radially.

western larch, respectively, which were first dried out and then allowed to reabsorb moisture. Figures 60, 61, and 62 indicate that the rate of shrinkage from the fiber saturation point to 0 moisture is quite uniform and likewise that the rate of swelling from 0 moisture to the fiber saturation is quite uniform. From this it is evident that wood in an air dry condition (12 to 15 per cent. moisture) would have reached about one-half its possible shrinkage in drying from a fiber saturation point of 25 to 30 per cent. to 0 per cent. moisture.

Shrinkage is due to the contraction of the cell walls. Shrinkage of a piece of lumber in a direction tangential to the annual rings is about twice as great as in the radial direction. Lengthwise of the lumber it is very slight. Figure 63 shows graphically the difference between tangential and radial shrinkage. Table 3,

Chapter II, gives the per cent. of shrinkage from a green to an oven-dry condition for the principal commercial species.

HOW WOOD MAY BE INJURED IN SEASONING

Checking.—Checking is caused by unequal shrinkage. If the outside of a piece of wood dries considerably faster than the inside, the surface in time will contract until it can no longer extend around the comparatively wet interior, and so will be torn apart in checks. Checks often are classified as end checks and face checks. End checking or splitting during seasoning causes nearly as much loss as face checking.

Casehardening.—Casehardening or surface hardening occurs when the surface of wood becomes set in a partially dry condition while the interior is still wet. This condition results from too



Fig. 64.—Sections cut from casehardened boards.

rapid surface drying. If the interior of a casehardened piece of wood dries further, it tends to shrink, while the "set" condition of the surface tends to prevent it from doing so. As a result, stresses are set up in the piece. Figure 64 shows sections cut from casehardened boards, with a strip sawed from the center of each section. In A, the stresses cause the prongs to curve inward and bind on the saw. If the stresses are relieved by treatment with steam, as is sometimes done, and the board dried a second time, the resawed prongs, as shown in B, will curve outward, owing to a reversal of the stresses. This is termed "reverse casehardening."

¹ For further discussion, see "Problems in Kiln-drying Lumber," by H. D. Tiemann, Lumber World Review, September 25, 1915.

Figure 65 shows the form taken by resawed pieces of kilndry boards steamed for different lengths of time. In No. 1 the prongs curve inward, owing to casehardening. Nos. 2 and 3 also show a casehardened condition as indicated by the strips curving inward. In Nos. 4, 5, and 6 the casehardening has been eliminated by longer steaming and the resawed strips are straight.

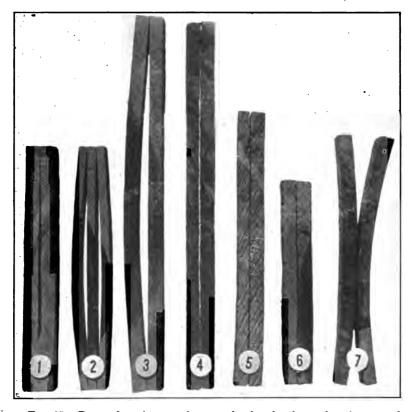


Fig. 65.—Resawed sections cut from casehardened red gum boards steamed for different lengths of time after being kiln dried. (1), No final steaming; (2) and (3), 18 minutes final steaming; (4), (5), and (6), 36 minutes final steaming; (7), 3 hours final steaming.

No. 7, which has been steamed still longer, shows a condition of "reverse casehardening," in which the resawed strips curve outward.

Sections cut as shown in Figs. 64 and 65 may be used also to determine the distribution of moisture in lumber whether case-hardened or not. If not casehardened, such sections will curve

inward as they dry if the lumber is wetter on the inside than on the surface, and outward if the reverse is the case. If the lumber is uniformly dry, the prongs will remain practically straight.

Honeycombing.—Honeycombing or internal checking occurs in casehardened pieces when the interior continues to dry and the surface remains fixed. In such cases splits appear in the interior. Figure 66 shows examples of honeycombing in casehardened pieces.

Warping.—Warping or twisting in lumber is due to unequal shrinkage. Some woods are much more subject to warping

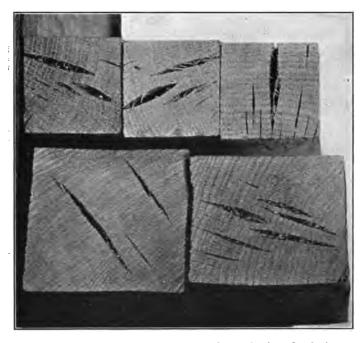


Fig. 66.—Honeycombed oak timbers, the result of casehardening.

than others. The trouble can be prevented to some extent by careful piling, both during drying and afterward. Figure 67 shows badly warped pieces of lumber.

Collapse.—In some woods, notably western red cedar and redwood, when the very wet wood is dried at a high temperature, depressions appear on the surface of the boards, presumably due to the collapse of the plastic cell walls in certain places. If, however, these woods are heated above the boiling point

while wet, the steam generated in the non-porous cells causes the wood to bulge on the surface. Figure 68 shows collapse and bulging, or "explosion," as it is termed by the discoverer of the phenomenon.¹

Brashness.—Wood subjected to high temperature treatments or very rapid drying may become brash or brittle and also darkened in color. Pieces of such wood will break suddenly when bent. Many complaints are heard of the overdrying of shingles which renders the wood brash and with "no life."



Fig. 67.—Radly warped boards. The trouble here is due to a poor arrangement of stickers and to the piling together of boards of unequal length.

AIR SEASONING

Although the use of dry kilns is increasing steadily, most wood is still seasoned in the open air. If wood is kept in the air long enough, the moisture content finally comes into equilibrium with that of the surrounding atmosphere, and the wood is said to be air-dried. The rate of drying varies of course, with time of year, species of wood, size and form of piece, and method of piling. Certain of these factors may be controlled or utilized in a way to hasten the drying process and lessen the likelihood of defects appearing in the material.

 $^{\circ}$ H $^{\circ}$ Decrease dipokin specialist. Forest Products Laboratory of Figure Service.



Fig. 68.—Cross section of cedar (on left) and redwood boards (on right) showing collapse and bulge respectively, in very wet lumber dried at a high temperature.

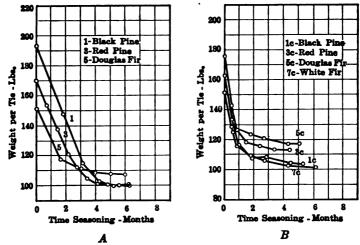


Fig. 69.—Southwestern ties. (A) Seasoning of ties at Pecos, N. Mex., cut in January and February. (B) Seasoning of ties at Pecos, N. Mex., cut in August, September, and October. (Black and red pine are local names for western yellow pine; black pine refers to young trees and red pine to mature trees.)

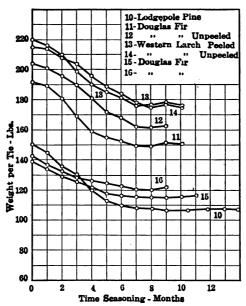


Fig. 70.—Northwestern ties. Seasoning of lodgepole-pine ties at Bozeman, Mont.; Douglas fir at Sandpoint, Idaho (curves 11 and 12); Pasco, Wash. (curve 15); and Tacoma, Wash. (curve 16); and western larch at Sandpoint, Idaho, cut in January and February; (the Tacoma ties cut in December and January).

Crossties, Poles, and Sawed Timbers.—The data in Figs. 69 to 79, inclusive, collected by the Forest Service¹ in various

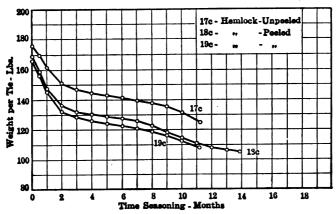


Fig. 71.—Seasoning of hemlock ties at Escanaba, Mich., cut in August and September.

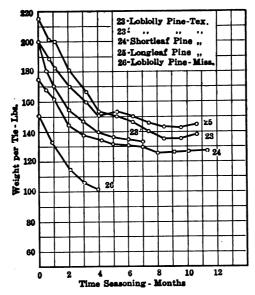


Fig. 72.—Seasoning of ties at Silsbee, Texas, and Ackerman, Miss.; cut in January and February.

parts of the country show the rate at which crossties, poles, and sawed timbers of several species lose moisture when freely exposed

¹ See "The Air Seasoning of Timber," by W. H. Kempfer, Forest Service, in *Bulletin* 161 of the American Railway Engineering Association.

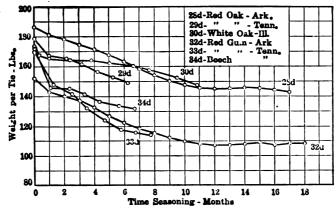


Fig. 73.—Seasoning of hardwood ties in Southern States; cut in October, November, and December.

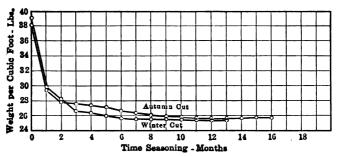


Fig. 74.—Seasoning of southern white cedar poles at Wilmington, N. C.

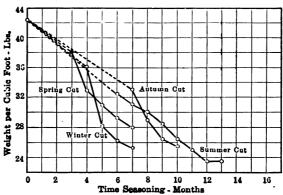


Fig. 75.—Seasoning of western red cedar poles at Wilmington, Cal.

to the atmosphere. In some cases it was not possible to weigh the pieces for several days after they were cut. Freshly cut timber loses weight very rapidly in warm, dry weather. Ties

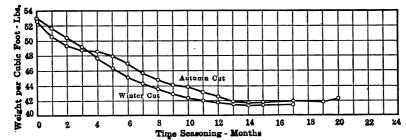


Fig. 76.—Seasoning of chestnut poles at Thorndale, Pa.

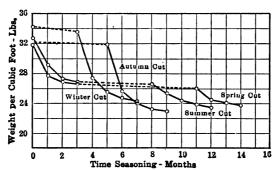


Fig. 77.—Seasoning of northern white cedar poles at Escanaba, Mich.

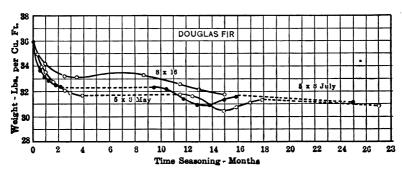


Fig. 78.—Seasoning of Douglas-fir timbers at Eugene, Oreg. (Dimensions given are in inches.)

in some species lose 10 pounds in twenty-four hours. The rates of seasoning of the various species may be compared by the general trend of the curves. When the curves reach a horizontal

position, the material may be said to be air dry, unless this happens at a time of year very unfavorable for seasoning.

The ties were seasoned in piles of 50 each, and were exposed without cover. The ties on the top of each pile, however, were placed close together and served as a rough roof. The curves are plotted from the average weight of the ties. The weight per unit volume could not be used, as in many cases the volumes of the ties were not obtained. The poles were seasoned on skids in the open. The sawed timbers were seasoned in open piles under shelter.

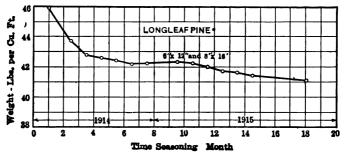


Fig. 79.—Seasoning of longleaf-pine timbers at Madison, Wis.

Lumber.—Sawed lumber is generally dried by being piled in stacks with air spaces between the boards. In forming the stacks usually the boards are laid flat, with strips called stickers between courses or layers. A space also is left between each board in a layer and the adjacent board to provide for the circulation of air throughout the stack. Flat or horizontal piling may be of two kinds: (a) with the ends of the boards toward the alley—endwise piling, and (b) with the sides toward the alley—sidewise piling. Figures 80 and 81 illustrate the two methods. The stacks are arranged to slope from front to rear, and to lean forward so that water dripping from the top falls to the ground without trickling down over the courses below. With either method of piling the stacks should be so located in the yard that the prevailing winds blow through them rather than against the sides of the stickers.

Most lumber manufacturers and dealers use the endwise method of piling. A number, however, have adopted the sidewise method, which has certain advantages in the matter of air circulation. In endwise piling the stickers obstruct the passage of air from back to front of a course, while in sidewise piling the passages from front to rear are clear. Water which forces

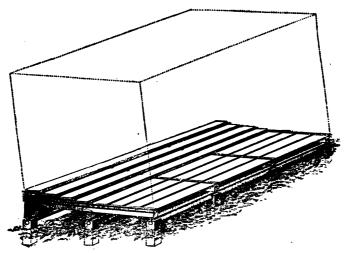


Fig. 80.—Lumber piled sidewise on cement and metal foundations.

its way into the pile is more effectively drained in sidewise piling, and the likelihood of sticker rot and discoloration due to the

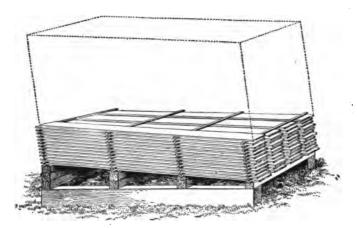


Fig. 81.—Lumber piled lengthwise on wooden foundation.

accumulation of moisture, dust, and dirt against the stickers is lessened.

The bottom boards in a stack rest on skids, which in turn rest

on foundations, preferably of stone, cement, or metal. Pieces containing rot should never be used for foundation timbers or skids, or allowed to remain in the pile. The vicinity of the pile should be kept clear of weeds.

The use of concrete and metal foundations is especially feasible in retail lumber yards and in those maintained by wood-using factories. In retail yards, where economy in space often is the essential thing, the piles are high and a particular space usually



Fig. 82.—Concrete as foundation material. These blocks extend 2 feet above and 2 feet into the ground.

is allotted to each class or species of lumber. In factory yards lumber often is held for a number of years before being used. In such cases the frequent renewal of wooden foundations under lumber piles entails considerable expenditure of time and money, to say nothing of the danger of infecting lumber by bringing it in contact with partly rotted foundation timbers. For these reasons foundations of a more permanent character are constantly

growing in favor in retail and factory yards. Figures 82 and 83 show foundations of this kind.

Sawmill yards, on the other hand, often contain several million feet of material and cover several acres. Lumber coming from the saw is generally piled wherever most conven-

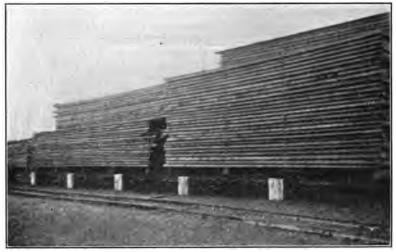


Fig. 83.—Another type of permanent foundation. Steel rails are embedded in concrete piers. The lumber is fully $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet above the ground, insuring excellent ventilation.

ient, provided it is placed at the distance from the mill required by insurance companies. Usually, economy in storage space is not essential, and piles of the same species and kind of lumber are likely to be found in a number of different sections of the yard. In addition, the stock is constantly being turned over, thus giving an opportunity to renew the foundation timbers at



Fig. 84.—Method of providing drainage under lumber piles.

comparatively small expense. A number of large lumber companies, however, have adopted concrete as a foundation material.

Lumber-storage yards need to be reasonably well drained, or at least the contour of the ground should be such that water will not stand under the stacks after a storm. Otherwise, decay is apt to get a start and spread throughout the pile. Where the ground offers but poor natural drainage facilities, some artificial system of drainage is usually employed. Figure 84 shows the system used in the yards of two large lumber companies in the southern hardwood region. This arrangement not only prevents the collection of rain water under the lumber piles, but also gives the required slope to the stack, which on level ground has to be secured by building up the foundations. A top dressing of cinders has been found satisfactory in some storage yards.



Fig. 85.—Partially rotted hardwood boards piled against a lumber stack. Infection will spread by contact to the sound lumber.

The matter of providing good drainage in lumber yards and keeping them free from rotten pieces of lumber and tall grass and weeds is often neglected. Pieces of discarded lumber thrown aside on the ground, especially where weeds are prevalent and the ground is wet, readily develop decay-producing fungi¹ and serve as a source from which nearby stacks may become infected.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}\,{\rm See}$ Chapter IV, Structural Timbers—Characteristics Affecting Decay in Timber.

It is not uncommon in yards to find partially rotted material piled against the lumber stacks (see Fig. 85) or to find fresh lumber stacked in direct contact with badly decayed foundation timbers. Under such conditions decay spreads rapidly to the sound lumber.

Decaying timber which has been allowed to accumulate about the yards (see Fig. 86) should be collected and burned. This will not only arrest the spread of fungi but will also lessen the



Fig. 86.—A highly insanitary mill yard in South Carolina. Hundreds of thousands of feet of stored lumber have rotted in this yard as a result of these conditions. All this rotten débris should be removed and burned.

fire hazard. The piling of such material in one place is not sufficient; for the fungi will continue to thrive in it and to liberate countless spores. These spores are blown about and find lodgement in stacks of sound lumber, where they develop and produce decay when the right conditions of temperature and moisture occur. Special attention should be paid to keeping the stickers free from infection. It is evident that the use of infected or

partly decayed stickers in building up a stack of lumber is quite likely to cause decay in the lumber. When a stack is taken down, the stickers will be in much better condition for the next stack if piled on end in conical piles or stacked beneath the skids instead of being allowed to stay where they happen to fall (see Fig. 87).

In cases where lumber is stacked for a comparatively short time under conditions where it is exposed to infection, no marked deterioration may be evident. Decay may, however, be present

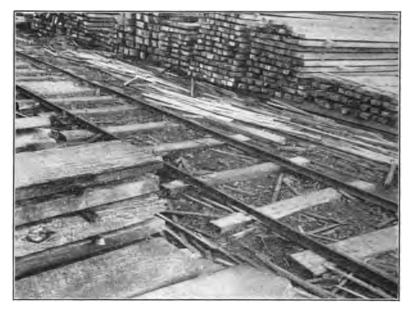


Fig. 87.—Piling sticks lying on the ground at a mill in South Carolina, showing the insanitary method of handling them. Such sticks lying for only a week or two in contact with fungus-infected ground may themselves become seriously infected, and may in turn pass the decay on to the lumber stacks.

in incipient stages ready to progress further should the lumber be placed under moist conditions. It is highly probable that many of the failures in timbers in important structures in recent years have been due to the use of timbers that were infected before placement in the structures. Timbers not infected are, of course, much more able to resist decay.

The railways and tramways common in lumber yards generally contain more or less rotted timber, and may become a dangerous source of infection. Little attention is paid to preservative

treatment, as timber for renewals is naturally plentiful. It is well worth consideration, however, as a means of lessening the danger of infecting lumber piled for storage, as well as of reducing the frequency of renewals and the usual attendant interruptions to normal operation.¹

Rules for Piling Lumber

The following set of rules for piling lumber covers the more important points to be observed in the construction of foundations, shape of stack, arrangement of stickers, etc.:

Foundations (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

- (a) The foundations should be strong, solid, and durable.
- (b) The top of each foundation should be level, and from front to back the top surface of the parallel skids should be in alignment, so that the lumber to be piled will bear equally upon each one.
- (c) The front foundation should be raised above the second, and the second above the third, etc., to allow a slant in the stack of 1 inch to every foot.
- (d) The foundations should be spaced not over 4 feet apart, except for heavy planks and timbers.
- (e) The front foundation should be of sufficient height to provide space for free circulation of air under all parts of the pile. Lumber (Endwise Piling).
- (a) Skids, preferably 2 by 4 inches, should be laid on top of the foundations.
 - (b) Boards of equal length should be piled together.
- (c) The ends of the boards should rest upon the front and rear skids.
- (d) A space of approximately three-fourths of an inch should be left between boards in the same layer.
- (e) Lumber piled in the open should have the front ends of boards in each layer slightly protruding beyond the end of the layer beneath, to give a forward pitch to the stack.

Lumber (Sidewise Piling).

- (a) Skids, preferably 4 by 6 inches, should be placed across the foundations at about 4-foot intervals. The number of skids depends upon the thickness of the lumber.
- ¹ For a further discussion of timber storage with reference to decay, see U. S. Department of Agriculture *Bulletin* 510. "Timber Storage Conditions in the Eastern and Southern States with Reference to Decay Problems," by C. J. Humphrey.

- (b) Boards of equal length should be piled together.
- (c) The boards should be placed on the skids, with about three-fourths of an inch between boards in the same layer.
- (d) Lumber piled in the open should have the front board in each layer project slightly beyond the board in the layer beneath, to provide a forward pitch to the stack.

Stickers (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

- (a) Stickers should be of uniform thickness, preferably seveneighths of an inch for 1-inch lumber and 1½ inches for 2-inch lumber. Their length should be a few inches in excess of the width of the pile.
- (b) Stickers should be placed upon the layer of boards immediately over the skids and kept in alignment parallel to the front of the piles.
- (c) The front and rear stickers should be flush with, or protrude beyond, the ends of the boards.

Roof Protection (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

Cover boards, as a roof protection, should be laid on the top of the pile, extending a few inches beyond the front and rear ends of the stack.

Spacing Stacks (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

Space between the piles should not be less than 2 feet; 4 or 5 feet is better if yardage conditions permit.

Dimension of Stack (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

The customary width of stacks is from 8 to 16 feet. The height is governed by the size and character of the lumber and by the methods of moving it.

Treated Ends (Endwise or Sidewise Piling).

The ends of lumber $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick or over, unless of the lower grades, should receive a brush treatment of paint or some liquid filler.

The rules just given are based on information obtained through field investigations and from lumber manufacturers and wholesale and retail dealers, and accord with the best lumber-piling practice in general commercial use. Certain species of wood, however, require particular care in air drying, and in this case slight variations from the rules are necessary in order to secure the best results. Some lumbermen in the South, for example, find that thick red oak checks badly on the ends, and in air-



Fig. 88.—Sun shields used to reduce checking in thick red oak timber.



Fig. 89.—Lumber piled so as to form "chimney" or flue near center of stack from bottom to top.

148 TIMBER

drying such stock have adopted the scheme of protecting it with sun shields, as shown in Fig. 88, which they claim reduces end checking to a minimum.

Mills cutting red gum formerly experienced difficulty in drying the lumber, on account of its tendency to warp. This, however, has been largely overcome by the exercise of care in seasoning. In erecting a pile of gum lumber, stickers are placed every 2 feet apart, some lumbermen claiming that 18 inches is none too close to obtain the best results. Another scheme in more or less general use among gum-lumber manufacturers is to construct the pile so as to have a flue or "chimney" in its center, thus pro-

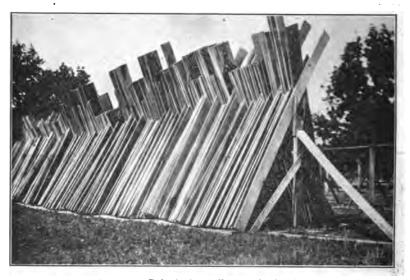


Fig. 90.—Pole drying yellow poplar lumber.

viding ample air circulation vertically through the stack, as shown in Fig. 89.

Green cottonwood, basswood, and yellow poplar lumber are likely to stain badly when piled. Accordingly, a number of lumbermen either end-dry the material or pole-dry it for a week or two and then place it in a "stuck" pile. In end drying, the boards are stood up on end, edge to edge, under a specially built shed, with stickers arranged horizontally one above the other at specified distances. Such a pile presents exactly the appearance of a regular lengthwise pile of lumber set up on end.

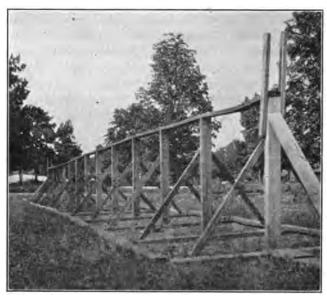


Fig. 91.—Pole framework used to dry yellow poplar, basswood, and cottonwood before placing it in a stuck pile.

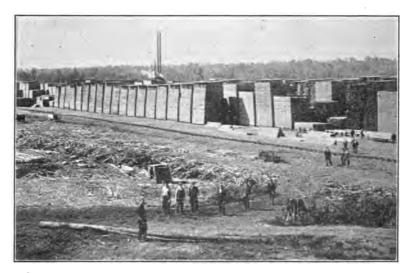


Fig. 92.—Lumber yard of a sawmill in the Lake States. Note fine appearance of lumber piles. The discarded material in the foreground is, however, a dangerous source of infection and should be burned.

Figure 90 shows a quantity of yellow poplar lumber being pole dried; and Fig. 91 shows the frame used for the purpose.

Hickory and ash lumber frequently check badly when air dried. Lumbermen in the southern hardwood region have found that the checks will close up entirely if the lumber is first stuck piled for six to eight months and then bulk piled and protected by good covering, preferably shed. The mechanical weakening effect of such checks, however, still remains.



Fig. 93.—A well-kept lumber yard.

Figures 92 and 93 show lumber piles in yards where careful attention has been given to piling and yard arrangement.

KILN DRYING

Lumber is kiln dried when there is need for seasoning it quickly, or when the manufacturer does not wish to carry large stocks in his yard. A kiln is used also when partially air-seasoned or even fully air-seasoned material is to be dried further for special uses.

The main problem in kiln-drying lumber is to prevent the moisture from evaporating from the surface of the pieces faster than it is brought to the surface from the interior. When this

is not prevented, the surface becomes considerably drier than the interior and begins to shrink. If the difference in moisture content is sufficient, the surface portion opens up in checks.

The evaporation from the surface of wood in a kiln can be controlled to a large degree by regulating the humidity, temperature, and amount of air passing over the wood. A correctly designed kiln, especially one for drying the more difficult woods, should be constructed and equipped in a way to insure this regulation.

A dry kiln may consist simply of a box in which lumber can be heated, or of a good-sized building or group of buildings (battery) containing steam pipes, condensers, sprays, and various air passages capable of adjustment to regulate the amount of ventilation. The elaborateness of the kiln depends, of course, mainly upon the value of the lumber that is to be dried. For lumber worth \$100 per 1,000 board feet, it will pay to use more careful drying methods than for material valued at \$20 or \$25 per 1,000 board feet.

Types of Kilns.—Kilns for drying lumber may be divided into two general classes: (a) compartment kilns, and (b) progressive kilns. In compartment kilns the conditions are changed during the drying process, and all lumber in the kiln is dried at one time. The conditions at any time during drying are uniform throughout the whole kiln. In a progressive kiln conditions at one end differ from those at the other, and the lumber is dried progressively by being passed through the kiln. Compartment kilns are used when it is desired to dry lumber of various sizes and species; progressive kilns are generally used where uniform stock is handled.

The methods of operation generally used in lumber kilns are: (a) natural ventilation (see Fig. 94), (b) condensing (see Figs. 95 and 96), and (c) superheated steam (see Fig. 97).

In kilns operating by natural ventilation, the humidity or dampness is controlled by the use of escaping steam and evaporated moisture. Circulation in progressive kilns is largely longitudinal and in compartment kilns transverse. Moist air is allowed to escape from the kiln.

In condensing kilns the humidity is controlled by recirculating the air, which has taken up water from the lumber, across water pipes or through water sprays. The temperature of the pipes or sprays governs the amount of water that condenses from the air, and consequently regulates the humidity of the air when reheated before being passed over the lumber again. The circulation of air may be either natural or forced. Condensing kilns are generally of the compartment type.

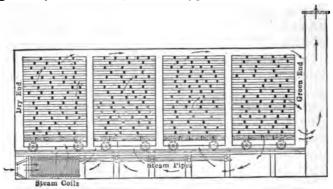


Fig. 94.—Scheme of a progressive kiln operated by natural ventilation. The entering air passes through the heating coils beneath the lumber piles then up through the lumber and out by way of the chimney. Steam may be admitted to raise the humidity.

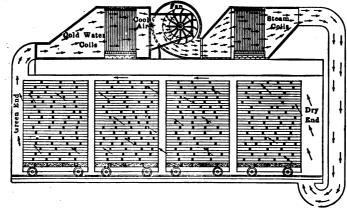


Fig. 95.—Scheme of a progressive blower kiln with a condenser for regulating the humidity. Air more or less saturated with moisture taken up in passing over the lumber is drawn from the green end of the kiln through cold-water coils, where it is cooled and part of the moisture it contains is deposited. After passing through the fan, the air is heated in the steam coils and made relatively drier. At the dry end of the kiln this heated air passes over lumber already partially dry and gradually removes moisture until the proper degree of dryness is reached. When this occurs the lumber truck at the dry end is removed and a truck with green lumber run in at the green end. By varying the temperatures in the cooling and in the heating coils the conditions in the kiln may be regulated.

Kilns operating with superheated steam are used only where the species to be dried are not injured by high temperatures, and where fast drying is advantageous. Lumber may be piled on the trucks which carry it into the kiln in any one of three ways (Fig. 98): (a) flat or horizontal, (b) edge or vertical, and (c) inclined. Flat piling is best for longitudinal circulation. It is not so well adapted for transverse circulation, and is not economical for downward circulation. Vertical piling increases the truck capacity, as there are no

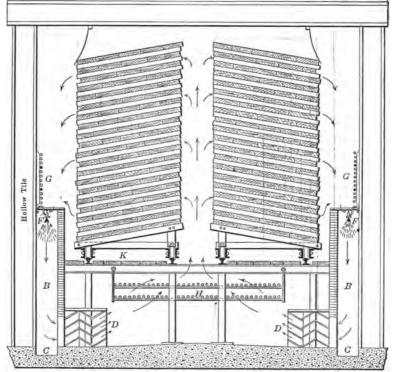


Fig. 96.—Cross section of compartment spray kiln developed by U. S. Forest Service. The air is heated by the coils (H), rises between the piles, and passes through them, taking up moisture from the wood. The cooled and heavier air then flows downward through the spray (F) and the flue (B) and then through the baffle plates (D) to the heating coils again. The condenser (G) is available if necessary. The temperature and velocity of the spray, the temperature of the heating coils and condensers, and the method of piling the lumber can be regulated to obtain the proper conditions for drying. It is frequently desirable to leave a space between boards in the same layer instead of placing them close together as shown.

vertical spaces between the boards. Probably it is the best method for downward or any fast circulation. Provision has to be made, however, for keeping the boards in place in the stack. Inclined piling allows for a definite movement of air either downward or upward (forced draft) and is in many cases an improvement, as regards circulation, over horizontal or flat piling.

Some kiln operators using the flat or horizontal method of piling report excellent results from the construction of a V-shaped opening in the center of the truck pile. Such openings are from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 feet wide at their base, and from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 feet high. Where this practice is followed it is customary

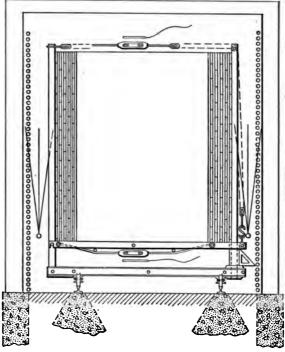


Fig. 97.—Cross section of a compartment kiln operating with superheated steam. Edge stacking with a device for taking up shrinkage is shown. Heating coils are located on each side of the kiln. Steam is admitted between the pile and the coils. The circulation is down through the pile and up on each side. The temperature and quality of steam and the temperature of the heating coils can be regulated to obtain the proper conditions for drying.

also to place the boards in the layers closer together as the top of the stack is reached, to force greater lateral circulation.

In loading lumber on kiln trucks by any one of the three methods mentioned, the stickers should be of a uniform thickness and arranged in the piles in alignment.

It is advisable not to attempt to dry various thicknesses of

lumber together. Thick lumber takes longer to dry than thin lumber; and when different thicknesses are mixed the operation

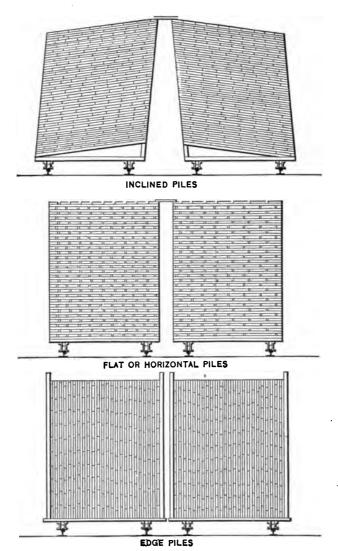


Fig. 98.—Methods of piling lumber for kiln drying.

has to be governed by the thick stock, to the possible detriment, or at least the unnecessarily long drying, of the thin stock.

Preliminary Treatments.—Lumber to be kiln dried is sometimes steamed in a separate compartment before being placed in the kiln proper, especially where the kiln is not designed for moistair treatment. The object of the steaming is to heat the lumber and thus make easier the transmission of moisture from the interior to the surface, and also to moisten the surface in case it has become casehardened or "set" during partial air drying. Other effects, also, are produced, which to a greater or less extent change the properties of the wood. Changes of a chemical nature apparently take place; for example, "sap" is changed by "cooking," as indicated by a darkening of the wood, the degree of coloring depending upon the temperature and duration of the process.

The pressure and duration of steaming desirable in kiln drying have not yet been thoroughly worked out. Durations of from five minutes to twenty-four hours or longer and pressures ranging from atmospheric to 50 pounds gauge have been used in practice. The higher the pressure the greater is the effect produced, and the longer the time the more thoroughly the treatment penetrates the wood. Experiments have shown that a pressure slightly above atmospheric for twenty-four hours will slightly darken 2-inch maple clear through, and a pressure of 40 pounds will turn oak and probably other hardwoods almost black. Even where the strength of the wood is not the primary consideration, it probably is not safe to exceed 15 pounds gauge pressure (250° F.), except for special purposes.

In transferring lumber from a compartment for preliminary treatment to the kiln proper, every care must be used to avoid a sudden change in humidity.

The Process of Drying.—After the wood has been heated thoroughly in a humid atmosphere, either in the kiln proper or in a separate compartment, it is ready to have the moisture removed by evaporation from the surface.

In kiln drying, uniform circulation apparently is the most important thing to be secured. The fact that air when it enters the drying chamber will be cooled, and therefore will tend to fall, should govern the method of piling and the directions of circulation.¹ This means that the air should be allowed and assisted to pass downward through the pile, either by entering at the

¹ See "The Circulation in Dry Kilns," by H. D. Tiemann, U. S. Forest Service, Lumber World Review, May 10 and June 10, 1916.

top of the pile or by an adaptation of this principle to other methods of piling.

The rate of evaporation may be controlled best by regulating the amount of moisture in the air (relative humidity) circulating about the lumber in the kiln; it should not be controlled by reducing the air circulation, since a large circulation is needed at all times to supply the necessary heat. Air at 100 per cent. relative humidity contains all the water it can carry and has no effect in drying wood. If, however, the humidity is reduced to 80 per cent. and the air then passed through a pile of wet lumber, the air can take up a certain amount of moisture. If drying does not progress rapidly enough with the circulating air at 80 per cent. humidity, it may be reduced still further. This may be accomplished by ventilation, by condensers, by water or steam sprays, or in a number of other ways. If checking begins during the drying process, the humidity should be increased until it stops. Steam jets in a kiln are often useful for this purpose. In changing the humidity, the circulation should not be reduced. A large body of moving air is necessary in order to keep a uniform temperature clear through to the center of each piece of wood in the pile and at the same time supply the heat required for evaporation. If sufficient circulation is not secured, the supply of heat for both purposes will be lacking and the material will not dry uniformly.

The conditions suitable for drying lumber of a certain kind are dependent on the use to which the wood is to be put. For some purposes a decrease in strength due to rapid drying is allowable so long as the appearance of the wood is not harmed and it stays in place and does not check. Inside finish, siding, and certain kinds of furniture are examples. For other purposes, such as airplane, vehicle, and handle stock, the full strength of the wood must be preserved, and the drying slowed down until there is no injury to the mechanical properties of the wood, even though the appearance may be entirely satisfactory.

The conditions that will generally give satisfactory drying and preserve the strength of the wood are a temperature of from 110 to 140° F. or higher at the start, depending on the kind of wood and the thickness of the pieces, and a humidity of from 80 to 85. The temperature is gradually raised as drying proceeds to a final temperature of 135 to 160° F. or higher while the humidity is gradually lowered to around 30, depending on the thick-

ness of the lumber and the degree of dryness required. The time required for drying depends on the thickness of the stock and the amount of moisture it contains. Some of the softer woods in the form of 1-inch boards may be dried in a few days to 10 per cent. moisture, while thick (3-inch) oak stock may require three months or more. The lumber should be inspected at frequent intervals during the run. If small checks appear, the humidity should be raised and probably the temperature lowered. A sample about 2 feet long may be cut from a typical piece in the stack to be dried before the run starts and its moisture and weight determined. This sample should then be replaced in the stack. By removing and weighing the sample during the run the rate at which drying is proceeding throughout the pile can be closely estimated. Sections cut from pieces in the stack at the completion of the run and resawed as in Figs. 64 and 65 may be used

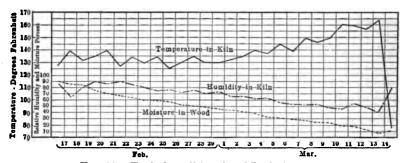


Fig. 99.—Typical conditions in a kiln during a run.

to show whether the lumber is casehardened or not, and also to show if the moisture is evenly distributed. Sections may also be cut into pieces and the moisture determined in the interior and surface portions to show the moisture distribution (see "Method of Determining Moisture in Wood" in Chapter III).

Figure 99 shows the conditions in a kiln during a run, with reference to temperature, humidity, and moisture in the wood. It will be noted that the humidity is kept high at first and lowered gradually. The temperature is held at a certain level for some time and then raised. The moisture is lowered gradually to a final condition of less than 10 per cent.

The maximum rate of drying at a given temperature is reached when moisture is evaporated from the surface of the wood just as fast as it is transmitted from the interior. This rate is fixed by the rate of transmission of moisture within the wood, and varies with different woods.

The temperature of drying apparently influences the rate of transmission of moisture within the wood. The higher the temperature of the wood the more rapid is the rate of transmission of the moisture, and hence the rate at which the moisture may be evaporated safely. This, of course, applies only to temperatures below those which might result in injury to the wood.

Figure 100 shows theoretical conditions in a kiln where both preliminary and final steaming are used. Casehardening that

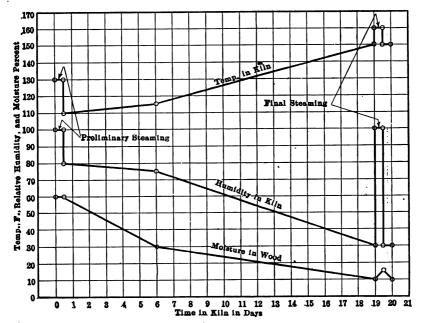


Fig. 100.—Theoretical conditions in kiln while drying lumber 2 inches thick of the *lighter* pines, spruces, etc.

occurs during the drying is removed by a few hours steaming at the end of the run. The oaks, hickories, and other heavier hardwoods require a longer period of drying to avoid checking and excessive casehardening. Lumber 1 inch thick can be dried in one-half the time given or less.

Drying tends to render wood more or less brittle. Although the strength of wood increases with its degree of dryness, yet wood which has been dried and resoaked is less resilient than when 160 TIMBER

green. Therefore, where strength is the prime consideration, it is preferable not to dry the wood considerably beyond the degree at which it is to be used. The final stage of kiln drying is generally conducted at a humidity somewhat below the actual humidity that on long exposure would produce the same average moisture condition. This is done in order to hasten the drying and to make it uniform throughout each piece.

Storage of Dried Lumber.—Since wood is a very hygroscopic substance, lumber stored under certain conditions will tend to come to a moisture content corresponding to the temperature

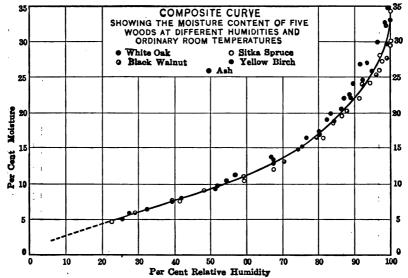


Fig. 101.—Composite curve of moisture content of five woods at different humidities and ordinary room temperature.

and humidity under which it is stored. Lumber kiln dried to a moisture content of 6 or 8 per cent. and then stored under an open shed will reabsorb moisture up to about 15 per cent., while lumber dried to 15 or 20 per cent. moisture and then stored in a wood-working shop will tend to dry out to about 6 per cent. The time required for lumber to reach a condition of moisture corresponding to the conditions of storage depends largely on the thickness of the material. The humidity of the storage conditions largely determines the final moisture. The moisture content reached by lumber stored under ordinary room temperatures for different degrees of humidity is shown in Fig. 101.

The data were obtained by storing samples of five different woods under different humidities until their weight was constant. There was no practical difference in the moisture content reached by the different woods at the same humidities. The proper humidities for storing lumber which it is desired to hold at a certain moisture content are shown by the curve. At higher temperatures the moisture content reached by the wood for any certain humidity would be less. For temperatures around 200° F. a humidity of about 80 would be required to hold wood at a moisture content of 10 per cent., while at room temperature (about 70° F.) a humidity of about 55 corresponds to 10 per cent. moisture.

CHAPTER VI

THE GRADING OF LUMBER BY MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATIONS'

PRINCIPLES OF LUMBER GRADING—MANUFACTURE AND DISTRIBUTION OF GRADED LUMBER—HARDWOOD LUMBER
GRADING—HARDWOOD ASSOCIATIONS—COMPARISON OF
RULES—SOFTWOOD LUMBER GRADING—GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE RULES FOR SOFTWOODS—DESCRIPTION OF
TYPICAL RULES

PRINCIPLES OF LUMBER GRADING

The grade of a piece of lumber is at present determined by the number, size, and location of the visible defects it contains. Clear pieces are placed in the highest grade, pieces with a few defects in the next grade, and so on down to the lowest grades or culls.

Defects include knots, stained sap, shake, wane, rot, pitch pockets, splits, and seasoning checks. In lumber for some purposes the presence of certain defects is allowable; for other uses only clear material is suitable. Where only clear pieces are suitable the value of the raw material depends upon the number of such pieces of a certain size that can be obtained from it. the case of sheathing for a house, over which the siding is nailed. knots, stained sap, and seasoning checks in reasonable quantity are allowed because they do not injure the lumber for that pur-On the other hand, material for certain classes of furniture, table tops for example, must be clear and not less than a minimum width and length, so that the suitability of lumber for such use is entirely a matter of the clear cuttings that it will yield. ferent uses call for cuttings of different kinds. Some products, such as flooring, require long, narrow cuttings for their manufacture; others, such as furniture stock, require short, wide cuttings. In some uses (highest grade flooring) one side only need be clear

¹ See paper by H. S. Betts and J. C. Nellis, Forest Service, Department of Agriculture.

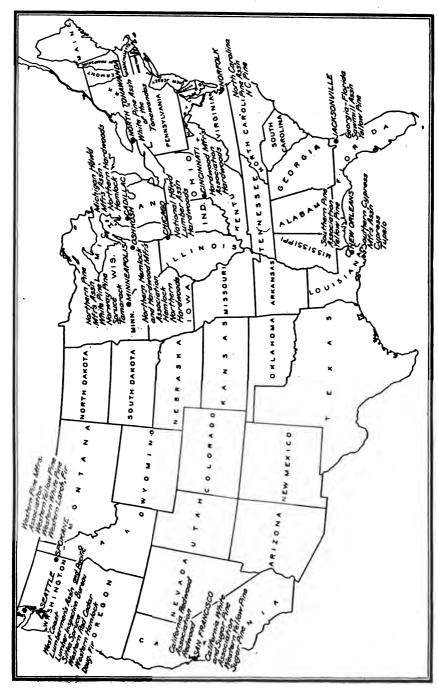


Fig. 102.—The principal lumber manufacturers' associations showing headquarters and woods covered by grading rules.

because the other does not show, while in other uses (best grade door stock) both sides of the cuttings are exposed to view, and should be clear. In certain uses, such as siding, one edge is covered when it is finally in place, so that some defects in the covered edge are allowable and the raw material is selected with this in mind.

Grading rules for lumber are generally prepared by associations of lumber manufacturers whose members cut certain species which grow in the same region. Figure 102 shows the names and headquarters of the principal lumber manufacturing associations and the woods covered by their grading rules.

MANUFACTURE AND DISTRIBUTION OF GRADED LUMBER

In the manufacture of graded material the trees are felled and the logs cut into standard lengths to a top diameter in the tree varying from 12 inches to 4 inches, depending on the species and on the condition of the market. When there is a large demand for low-grade material, as in prosperous times, it is possible to carry the utilization of the tree a good deal further than when the demand for low grades is very slack. This applies both to the smallness of top logs which can be used at a profit and to more or less defective logs which will not yield high-grade material. In some parts of the country logs are divided into two or three grades, depending on their size and the defects they contain. Log grading is generally based on the proportion of the higher grades of lumber that can be obtained from them.

The proportion of the different grades that are obtained from a log depends to a considerable extent upon the judgment and skill of the sawyer. This is probably true to a greater extent in hardwoods than in softwoods. There is more opportunity for the exercise of judgment in sawing the more valuable hardwoods than in sawing the conifers because in operations in conifers the logs are more regular and the methods more standardized.

In some parts of the country, especially New England, it is customary to manufacture what is known as "round edge" lumber. That is, the logs are simply sawed into flitches at a single setting, no attempt being made to trim the edges of the material. About 10 per cent. more lumber, board measure, is obtained by this method than by sawing all boards with parallel edges. Such lumber is usually loosely graded by local unwritten rules.

The distribution of lumber from the mills where it is manufactured is influenced largely by the grade of the material and its corresponding price. High-grade lumber can be shipped comparatively long distances and still yield a profit to the manufacturer in spite of a high freight charge. Low-grade material. however, of comparatively little value can stand only a short haul. On this account, it is generally only the higher and medium grades of species growing in different regions that come into competition. Woods put to special uses and structural timbers cut only in certain regions do not follow the general The distribution of grades is also affected by the prosperity of the country. In good times the demand for the lower grades greatly increased, as a result of increased building and construction of all kinds; prices rise, and it is possible to ship low-grade material further and still make a profit on it. grade stock is much less influenced in both distribution and price by changes in business conditions.

HARDWOOD LUMBER GRADING

Hardwood Associations.—Nearly all hardwood lumber produced in North America is graded according to the rules of two lumber associations, the National Hardwood Lumber Association and the Hardwood Manufacturers' Association of the United States.

Fifty years ago practically no hardwood lumber was graded. There was only a very limited demand for it in the wood-using industries; the chief problem of manufacturers was finding a market, and they sold their output "mill run" to jobbers, wholesalers, and other buyers.

The first attempt to grade hardwood lumber on the market was made by an association of wholesale dealers in New York. The New York Lumber Association formulated rules for use in trading on the New York market and for export lumber. These rules, naturally, were extremely favorable to the jobber and wholesaler and admitted only entirely clear stock in the upper grades. Outside of New York there were no rules in force, until in 1894 the National Wholesale Lumber Association was organized to establish uniform grading rules for hardwoods. This association, by judicious revision of the old New York rules, succeeded in obtaining members representing both wholesalers

and manufacturers. In 1900 the association changed its name to the National Hardwood Lumber Association. In the meantime the manufacturers of hardwood lumber in the Middle States had formed an organization of their own and adopted independent rules. This association was not successful and was finally merged with the National Harwood Lumber Association about 1900. Many of the manufacturers of the Middle States and especially in the South withdrew when the merger took place and organized the present Hardwood Manufacturers' Association of the United States.

There are other hardwood associations in existence at the present time, but they use the rules of one or the other above associations, having no separate rules of their own.

The members of the Hardwood Manufacturers' Association are manufacturers. They operate largely in the central and southern hardwood region.

The National Hardwood Lumber Association is the larger association, and is composed of manufacturers in the northern, central, and southern regions and wholesalers in all the principal distributing points.

The grades adopted by these two associations for the various kinds of hardwood lumber are shown in Table 21.

TABLE 21.—GRADES ADOPTED FOR HARDWOOD LUMBER PRODUCTS

NATIONAL HARDWOOD LUMBER ASSOCIATION

August, 1917, Rules

Kinds of Woods Graded

Ash	Butternut	Hickory	Poplar
Basswood	Cherry	Locust	Red gum
Beech	Chestnut	Magnolia	Sycamore
Birch	Cottonwood	Mahogany	Tupelo
Black gum	Cypress	Maple	Walnut
Buckeye	Elm	Oak	Willow
·	Hackberry	Pecan	

Oak, Plain-sawed, Red and White

Table 21.—Grades Adopted for Hardwood Lumber Products (Contd.) Oak, Plain-sawed, Red and White (Continued)

Product	
	Grades
Squares	Firsts & Seconds
-	Sound
	No. 1, 2 Common
Step Plank	
-	Common
Strips	Clear
	Clear Sap
	No. 1, 2 Common
Plank and Timbers	
	No. 1, 2 Bridge Plank
	Common Timbers
	Sound, Square-edged
Wagon Stock—	ound, Equate eugeu
Bolsters	No. 1. 2
Sandboards	
Reaches	•
Poles	
Sawed Felloes.	
Bending Oak.	
	No. 1 Common
•	· ·
Oak, Quarter-sawed, Red	l and White
Lumber	
	Selects •
•	No. 1, 2, 3 Common
Strips(
-	Clear Sap
7	
	No. 1, 2 Common
Hickory	No. 1, 2 Common
	No. 1, 2 Common
Hickory Lumber	No. 1, 2 Common
Lumber	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common
Hickory Lumber	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2 No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2 Panel & Wide No. 1 Firsts & Seconds
Hickory Lumber. 1	No. 1, 2 Common Firsts & Seconds No. 1, 2, 3 Common No. 1, 2 Panel & Wide No. 1 Firsts & Seconds Saps

Table 21.—Grades Adopted for Hardwood Lumber Products (Contd.) Poplar (Continued)

	Popla	r (Continued)	
Product		Grades	
Squares		Firsts & Sec	conds
		Sound	
		No. 1, 2 Co	mmon
Strips		Clear	
-		Sap	
		No. 1, 2 Co	mmon
Lath		No. 1, 2	
Wagon Box Board	la	One Grade	
		No. 1, Selec	ts
-	•	No. 1, 2 Co	mmon
Dressed Dimension	n Strips		ets
	-	No. 1, 2 Co	
Casing and Base		Firsts & Sec	conds
-		Selects	
		No. 1 Com	non
Flooring, Partition	n, and Ceiling	No. 1, Selec	ts
	_	No. 1, 2 Co	mmon
Moldings			
	Popla	r, Quarter-sawed	
Lumber		Firsts & Sec	onds
	•	No. 1 Com	
HARDWOOD MA	ANUFACTURERS	ASSOCIATION OF THE	UNITED STATES
	March	1, 1917, Rules	
	Kinds of	Woods Graded	
Ach	Duelrore	Waakhamu	Danas

Ash	Buckeye	Hackberry	Pecan
Basswood	Butternut	Hickory	Poplar
Beech	Cherry	Magnolia	Red gum
Birch	Chestnut	Mahogany	Sycamore
Black gum	Cottonwood	Maple	Walnut
_	Elm	Oak	

Oak, Plain-sawed, Red or White

Product	Grades
Lumber	Firsts & Seconds (FAS)
	Selects
	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
	Firsts & Seconds Wormy
	No. 1 Common Wormy
	Core Stock
Strips	Clear Face
	No. 1, 2 Common

Table 21.—Grades Adopted for Hardwood Lumber Products (Contd.) Oak, Plain-sawed, Red or White (Continued)

Oak, Plain-sawed, Red or W	hite (Continued)
, Product	Grades
Step Plank	. Firsts & Seconds (FAS) No. 1 Common
Plank and Timbers—	
Construction Timbers and Plank	
Locomotive and Car Timbers	Construction Oak
Switch and Cross Ties	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
Bridge and Crossing Plank	Structural Timbers
Sheet Piling	
Cattle Guards	Sound, Square Edge
Bumping Posts	, .
Wagon Stock-	
Bolsters	One Grade
Sandboards	One Grade
Reaches	
Poles	One Grade
Sawed Felloes	One Grade
Bent Rims	
Wagon Spokes (White Oak)	Second Growth, A. B.
Dimension Material—	
Seat Stock	One Grade
Chair Frame Stock	One Grade
Table Tops	
Chair Backs	
Band-sawed Patterns	One Grade
Implement Stock—	
Plow Handle Strips	One Grade
Oak, Quarter-sawed, R	
Lumber	
	Selects
Strips	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
-	No. 1, 2 Common
Step Plank	Firsts & Coopeda (FAC)
	No. 1, Common
	110. 1, Common
Hickory	
Lumber	
	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
Wagon Stock— Vehicle Wheel Stock	A B C D E
Axles	
Bolsters	
Dometra	OTO CITAGE

Table 21.—Grades Adopted for Hardwood Lumber Products (Contd.)

Hickory (Continued)

Howery (C)	onerewou)
Product	Grades
Wagon Stock (Continued)	
Sandboards	One Grade
Reaches	One Grade
Eveners	One Grade
Popl	
Lumber	Panel & Wide No. 1
	Firsts & Seconds (FAS)
	Selects
	Saps
	Wide No. 2
	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
	Scoots
Car Sign Boards	
Wagon Box Boards	One Grade
Shorts	
Strips	•
	No. 1, 2 Common
Squares	• •
	No. 1, Common
Bevel and Drop Siding	
	No. 1, 2 Common
Dressed Dimension Strips	
`	No. 1, 2 Common
Casing and Base	•
	Saps and Selects
	No. 1 Common
Flooring, Partition, and Ceiling	
	No. 1, 2 Common
Moldings	•
Poplar, Qu	
Lumber	Firsts & Seconds (FAS)
	No. 1, 2 Common

NOTE.—Products and grades for oak, hickory, and poplar only are given in Table 21. Products and grades for other woods listed are similar.

Comparison of the Rules.—The first rules for grading hard-woods adopted by the New York Lumber Association contained only a few grades applicable to all species and were comparatively crude and unsatisfactory. The present rules of the Hardwood Manufacturers' Association contain about 300 grades, including rules for the inspection of all kinds of hardwood lumber and special forms, such as molding, partition, siding, flooring, etc. The rules now used by the National Hardwood

Lumber Association contain about 400 grades, including all species and special forms.

The comparative merit of the grading rules of the two associations has been a mooted question for a number of years. Numerous attempts have been made to bring about an agreement between the rival associations. Each association has tried to convince the other of the superiority of its rules and to persuade the other to adopt them; and efforts have been made to bring about the adoption, on common, of a single set of rules. Every effort has failed, in spite of the fact that the members of both associations desire uniformity in grading hardwoods. The American Hardwood Manufacturers' Association, recently organized to exploit hardwoods, is expected to be a strong factor in the movement to effect uniformity in rules.

A comparison of the wording of the two rules seems to show that they are very similar. The chief difference is whether the grading is to be based upon the better side of the piece, the poorer side, or both sides. The National Hardwood Lumber Association rules formerly required inspection to be made on the poorer side of the piece; but now one regular and two special grades out of a total of seven are inspected on the face or best side. The Hardwood Manufacturers' Association requires both sides of the piece to be considered in determining the grade. The difference between inspection on the worse side and on both sides affects the whole of each rule so that the similarity of wording in other respects is misleading. It is obvious that inspection on the worse side is more satisfactory to the jobbers, and inspection on both sides to the manufacturers.

Another difference is in the number of grades. The National rules include Firsts and Seconds, Selects, and Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Common, as well as special Nos. 1 and 2 Common Face; while the Manufacturers' rules provide for Firsts and Seconds and Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 Common, also Selects in oak and poplar.

The following summary of the rules of both associations is an attempt to pick out the fundamental requirements for the different grades, irrespective of species. It is, therefore, not to be considered as a grading rule for hardwoods, but is merely a brief, general summary of the principles involved, without regard to the innumerable details of exact inspection of specific kinds of woods.

SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF THE NATIONAL HARDWOOD LUMBER - ASSOCIATION

Note.—Inspection must be made upon the poorer side of the piece, except as otherwise specified.

1. Standard Lengths.

Standard lengths are from 4 to 16 feet inclusive in 1 foot multiples, but not over 15 per cent. of odd lengths are admitted.

2. Standard Thicknesses for Rough Lumber.

1/4 in.	5% in.	1¼ in	2 in.	3⅓ in.	5 in.
¾ in.	¾ in.	11½ in.	2½ in.	4 in.	5⅓ in.
⅓ in.	1 in.	1¾ in.	3 in.	41⁄2 in.	6 in.

The standard thicknesses of lumber surfaced on two sides are $\%_6$ in. less for pieces 1 in. and under, $\%_2$ in. less for pieces 1% in. and 1% in., and 1% in. less for pieces 1% in. and over. Surfaced lumber is measured on the basis of rough dimensions.

3. (a) Standard Grades.

Firsts and Seconds	No. 2 Common
Selects	No. 3 Common
No. 1 Common	

(b) Special Grades.

110. I Common Page 110. 2 Common Page	No.	l Common	Face	No. 2	Common	Face
---------------------------------------	-----	----------	------	-------	--------	------

4. Woods Included.

Ash	Cottonwood	Pecan
Basswood	Cypress	Poplar
Beech	Elm	Red gum
Birch	Hackberry	Sycamore
Black gum	Hickory	Tupelo
Buckeye	Locust	Walnut
Butternut	Magnolia	Willow
Cherry	Maple	•
Chestnut	Oak	

5. Description of Standard Grades.

Grade	Length Allowed	Width Allowed	Defects Allowed
Firsts and Seconds	8 to 16 feet (Not more than 20% to be less than 12 feet)	6 in. and wider	Ranging from no defects in pieces 2 to 9 surface ft. to 5 defects in pieces of 20 sur- face feet.

Grade	Length Allowed	Width Allowed	Defects Allowed
Selects	6 to 16 feet (Not more than 30% to be less than 12 feet)	4 in. and wider	Ranging from pieces 6 ft. and 7 ft. long, clear one face, to larger pieces not less than Firsts and Seconds on best face and No. 1 Common on reverse.
No. 1 Common	4 to 16 feet (Not more than 10% to be less than 8 feet)	3 in. and wider	Must be clear in 4 ft. and 5 ft. lengths, and in 3 in. and 4 in. widths under 8 ft. long. Wider and 1 on ger pieces must work 6634% clear on from 2 to 4 cuttings. (No cutting less than 4 in. × 2 ft. or 3 in. × 3 ft.)
No. 2 Common	4 to 16 feet (Not more than 10% under 6 feet)	3 in. and wider	Must work 50%, clear face in from 3 to 5 cuttings according to width and size of piece. No cutting less than 3 in. × 2 ft. (In some woods cuttings required sound instead of clear.)
No. 3 Common	4 to 16 feet	3 in. and wider	Must work 25% sound cuttings. (No cutting less than 1½ in. wide nor less than 36 square inches.)

Exceptions.—Firsts and Seconds for rock elm, hickory, and pecan are as follows:

Grade

Length Allowed Width Allowed

Defects Allowed

Firsts and Seconds

(30% of 8 ft.
t o 10 f t.
lengths are allowed)

Defects Allowed

Ranging f r o m clear pieces 4 in. wide to pieces with 4 defects in 18 surface feet.

Firsts and Seconds for walnut and butternut are as follows:

Firsts and Seconds	8 to 16 feet (Not more than 35% to be less than 10 feet)	6 in. and wider	Ranging from 1 standard defect and 3/2 in. sap in pieces under 10 ft. long and under 8 in. wide to 3 defects and 3 in. of sap in pieces 10 ft. long and over by 12 in. wide
			and over

6. Description of Special Grades.

No. 1 Common Face grade is the same as Standard No. 1 Common, except that it is inspected from the better side.

No. 2 Common Face grade is the same as Standard No. 2 Common except that it is inspected from the better side.

Panel and Wide No. 1

(When combined must be at least 50% Panel)

POPLAR, COTTONWOOD, AND GUM

Grade Width and Thickness Lengths Defects Allowed Panel 18 in. and over by 8 to 16 feet 50% of total quan-3% in. to 2 in. tity must be clear both sides; remainder may contain defects, provided 90% of the piece can be used for panels in cuttings 4 ft. long by the full width.

Grade Width and Thickness Lengths Defects Allowed Wide No. 1 18 in. and over by 6 to 16 feet 6 ft. and 7 ft. 3% in. to 2 in. pieces must be clear: longer pieces must work 75% clear in 4 ft. and longer cuttings by full width of piece.

7. Standard Defects.

Each of the following defines one standard defect:

- (1) One knot 11/4 in. in diameter.
- (2) Two knots not exceeding in extent of damage one 11/4 in. knot.
- (3) One split not diverging more than 1 inch to a foot, and not longer in inches than the surface measure of the piece in feet.
- (4) Worm, grub, knot, and rafting pin holes not exceeding in extent of damage one 11/4 in. knot.

SUMMARY OF THE RULES OF THE HARDWOOD MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Note.—Both sides of the piece must be taken into consideration in making the grade.

1. Standard Lengths.

Standard lengths are from 4 to 20 feet; 15 per cent. of odd lengths are admitted in any grade.

2. Standard Thicknesses for Rough Lumber.

% in.	1 in.	2 in.	3 in.
1/2 in.	1¼ in.	2¼ in.	3¼ in.
5% in.	1½ in.	2½ in.	3⅓ in.
3/4 in.	148 in.	2¾ in.	4 in.

Ten per cent. of the shipment may be $\frac{1}{16}$ in. scant.

The standard thicknesses of lumber surfaced on two sides is $\frac{9}{6}$ in. less than the thickness of the rough lumber for pieces from $\frac{1}{2}$ in. to to 1 in., $\frac{5}{3}$ in. less for pieces $\frac{3}{6}$ in., $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and $\frac{1}{2}$ in. less for pieces $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and over. Surfaced lumber is measured on the basis of rough dimensions.

3. Names of Standard Grades.

Firsts and Seconds No. 3 Common No. 1 Common No. 4 Common No. 2 Common

4.	Species	Included.
----	----------------	-----------

Ash	Chestnut	Oaks
Basswood	Cottonwood	Pecan
Beech	. Elm	Poplar
Birch	Hackberry	Red gum
Black gum	Hickory	Sycamore
Buckeye	Magnolia	Tupelo
Butternut	Maple	Walnut
Cherry	=	

5. Description o	f Standard Grades.		
Grade	Lengths Allowed	Widths Allowed	Defects Allowed
Firsts and Sec- onds	may be 8 feet	6 in. and wider	defects in pieces
	and 9 feet, 15% may be		less than 8 in. wide to 4 de-
	10 feet)	•	fects in pieces
•	•		14 in. to 16 in. wide.
No. 1 Common	6 to 20 feet (5% may be 6 feet	4 in. and wider	Ranging from no defects in 6 ft.

and 7 feet, 20% may be 8 feet)

pieces under 8 in. wide to 1 defect in pieces over 8 in. wide. Other widths and lengths must work 66-34% clear face in from 2 to 6 cuttings of at least 144 square inches.

No. 2 Common	4 to 20 feet (10% may be 4 feet and	3 in. and wider
	5 feet, 15% may be 6 feet)	

er Ranging from no defects in pieces of 4 ft. lengths to 50% clear face cuttings in ft. and pieces. longer Cuttings to be at least 144 square inches.

No. 3 Common 4 to 20 feet 3 in. and wider

Must work 50% sound cuttings 3 in. by 2 ft.

Lengths Allowed Widths Allowed Defects Allowed Grade No. 4 Common 4 to 20 feet All widths Includes all lumber not up to No. 3 Common. Unsound lumber with sufficient substance to hold nails admitted.

6. Additional Standard Grades in Certain Woods.

Panel and Wide No. 1

(Combined as one grade)

	POPLAR, COTTO	NWOOD, AND GUM	
Grade	Lengths Allowed	Widths Allowed	Defects Allowed
Panel	8 to 20 feet (10% may be 8 feet and 9 feet, 10% may be 10 feet)	18 in. and over	Clear 8 ft. and 9 ft. lengths. 75% of total quantity must be clear, balance may contain 3 defects, provided 90% of the piece will make panels not less than 4 ft. long and full width of piece.
Wide No. 1	(10% may be 8 feet and 9 feet, 10% may be 10 feet)	18 in. and over	Ranging from 1 standard defect in 8 ft. and 9 ft. lengths to 4 standard defects in pieces 17 ft. to 20 ft. long.
	N	elects	

OAK AND POPLAR

6 feet and 8 5 in. and 6 in. Selects In general not feet and over and over below Firsts and Seconds on better face.

7. Standard Defects.

Each of the following is a standard defect:

- 1. One knot 11/4 inches in diameter.
- 2. Two knots so located that the damage is not more than for one standard knot.
- 3. Worm holes, grub holes, or rafting pin holes not exceeding in damage one standard knot.
- 4. Heart, shake, rot, dote, or any other defects not exceeding in damage one standard knot.
- 5. Bark or waney edge not more than 1 inch in average width and not extending more than one-third the length of the board. Must show on one side only.

SOFTWOOD LUMBER GRADING

GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE RULES FOR SOFTWOODS

The grading of softwood lumber is complicated by the large number of rules in use. Different kinds of wood, such as southern yellow pine, white pine, Douglas fir, etc., are graded under different rules. Some species are included under the rules of two different lumber associations. The grades adopted for the various kinds of softwood lumber by the principal lumber associations throughout the United States are shown in Table 22.

TABLE 22.—GRADES ADOPTED FOR SOFTWOOD LUMBER PRODUCTS BY
PRINCIPAL LUMBER ASSOCIATIONS

Southern Pine Association

1917 Rules for Yellow Pine (Longleaf, Loblolly, and Shortleaf Pine)

Product	Grade .
Finishing	A, B, C
•	Panel Shop
Flooring	Flat Grain—A, B, C, D,
_	No. 1, 2, 3 Common
	Edge Grain—A, B, C, D,
	No. 1 Common
	No. 1 Common Factory
Ceiling	A, B
	No. 1 & 2 Common
Wagon Bottoms	
Drop Siding	A & B
	No. 1 & 2 Common
Bevel Siding	A & B
	No. 1 & 2 Common

Product	Grade
Partition	A & B
	No. 1 & 2 Common
Molded Casing, Window, and Door Jam'	bs.A, B&C
Molding	B & Better
Common Boards, Shiplap, and Barn Sidi	ing. No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
Grooved Roofing	No. 1 Common
Fencin ;	No. 1, 2, 3, 4
Dimension and Heavy Joist	No. 1, 2, 3 Common
Lath	No. 1 & 2
Timbers	Select Structural
•	Merchantable
	Square Edge & Sound
	No. 1 Common

Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association

1916 Rules for Lumber and Planing-mill Products

(Same as Southern Pine Association Rules)

Interstate Rules of 19051 and 19162

Yellow Pine

Product		Grade
Flooring)	ſ
Boards		Prime
Planks]	1
Scantling	}	Merchantable
Dimension]	
Stepping	Í	Standard
Rough Edge or Flitch	J	(

North Carolina Pine Association

1917 Rules for Kiln-dried North Carolina Pine (Loblolly and Shortleaf Pine)

Product	Grade
Rough and Dressed Lumber	No. 1, 2, 3, Box, Culls
-	Merchantable Red Heart
	Cull Red Heart
	No. 1 & 2 Shop
	No. 1 & 2 Bark Strips
	Box Bark Strips
Flooring	No. 1, 2, 3 & 4 Flat Grain
_	No. 1 & 2 Rift

¹ Adopted by Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association, North Carolina Pine Association.

² Adopted by Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association.

I RINCIPAL DUMBER ASSU	CIATIONS—(Continued)
Product	Grade
Ceiling	No. 1, 2, 3 & 4
Partition	
Fencing	No. 1, 2, 3 & 4
Base and Casing	
German, Bevel and Drop Siding	
Rails	No. 1 & 2
Molding	No. 1
Factory Flooring and Roofers	Same as Box
Plank, Dimension and Timber	One Grade
Grades for air-dried are No. 1, 2, 3	, Box, Culls, and Framing.
Northern Pine Manufact	urers' Association
1915 Rules for Northern White	Pine, Spruce, and Tamarack
Product	Grade
Thick Finishing	1st, 2d, 3d Clear
	A, B, C, D Select
Inch Finishing	1st, 2d, 3d Clear
•	A, B, C, D Select
	D Stock & Box
Siding	
	B, C, D & E
Flooring	
	Farmers Clear Flooring
•	No. 1, 2, 3 Fencing (D & M)
Shiplap, Grooved, Roofing, and D & M	
Factory Lumber	
•	Inch Shop Common
•	Short Box
	Factory A Select & Better
	Factory B & C Select
Thick Common Lumber	
	Select Common
Common Boards and States	No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 Common
Common Boards and Strips	No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 Common
Dimension	
Lath	
Fencing	INO. 1, 2, 3, 4

White Pine Association of the Tonawandas

Rules for White Pine-Not Dated

Product

Grade

Uppers Selects

กลา	LCI.

Grade

Fine Common
No. 1, 2 & 3 Cuts
No. 1 & 2 Moldings
Stained Saps
Star Clear

No. 1 Shelving & Dressing

No. 2 Dressing
No. 1 & 2 Shelving

No. 1, 2 & 3 Barn

No. 1 Box

Bevel Siding Moldings Lattice Pickets

Southern Cypress Manufacturers' Association

1917 Rules for Cypress

Product	Grade
Tank Stock	One Grade
Finishing	
Factory Lumber	Factory Selects
	Shop
Boards	Select Common
·	Heart Select Common
	No. 1 & 2 Common
	Box, Peck
Siding, Flooring, Ceiling	A, B, C & D
Shiplap, Casing, Base	A, B, C & D
Grooved Roofing, Partition	
Switch Ties	
Cross Ties	Standard No. 1 Peck
Short Lumber	B & Better
Window and Door Frames, Jambs, Etc.	B & Better
Panel Stock	B & Better
Pickets	No. 1 & 2
Battens and Squares	One Grade
Car Roofing and Siding	
Car Lining	One Grade
_	

National Hardwood Lumber Association

1917 Rules for Cypress

Product	•	Grade
Tank		One Grade
Finishing		Firsts & Seconds
	•	Selects

I IMPORTANT LIONADEN TAG	Sociations (community)
Product	Grade
Factory Lumber	No. 1 & 2 Shop
Boards	
	No. 1 & 2 Boxing
	Peck
Finished Cypress	
Panel	
Siding and Flooring	
Ceiling and Partition	
Car Roofing and Siding	
Car Lining	
Battens and Squares	
rickets and Lath	
West Coast Lumb	permen's Association
1917 Rail Rules for Douglas	Fir, Sitka Spruce, Western Red
Cedar, and W	estern Hemlock
Product	Grade
Flooring	No. 1. 2. 3. 4 Clear Edge
210013113	No. 2 & Better, 3, 4 Clear Flat
	Grain
Ceiling, Partition, Drop Siding, and	Rustic.No. 2 Clear & Better
	No. 3 & No. 4 Clear
Bungalow or Colonial Siding	No. 2 Clear & Better Resawn
Bevel Siding	No. 2 Clear & Better
	No. 3 Clear
Finish, Casing, and Base	Selected Flat Grain
	No. 2 Clear & Better
	No. 3 Clear
Boards and Shiplap	
	No. 1, 2, 3 Common
Dimension, Plank, and Small Timber	
m: 1	No. 1 & 2 Common
Timbers	
Factory Lumber	No. 1 & 2 Common
ractory Lumber	No. 1, 2 Shop Common
	Inch Shop Common
	Panel Lumber
Stepping	
~~vhb-mg	No. 3 Clear
Tank Stock	
Windmill Stock	

¹ Products and grades are given for Douglas fir only. Those for the other species listed differ.

Product	Grade
Silo Stock	. No. 2 Clear & Better
	Selected Common
Well Tubing	. No. 3 Clear & Better
Corn Cribbing	
	Selected Common
Pickets	.One Grade
Battens	.One Grade
Mining Timber	. No. 1
Well Curbing	. Selected Common
	No. 1 Common
Wagon Bottoms	. No. 2 Clear & Better
Lath	.One Grade
Turned Porch Columns	. No. 1
Ship Decking	.One Grade
Turning Squares	. No. 2 Clear & Better
Pipe Staves	.One Grade

Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau

1917 Domestic Rules for Douglas Fir, Western Hemlock, Sitka Spruce, Western Red Cedar, and Port Orford Cedar

Product	<i>Grade</i>
Rough Clears	No. 2 Clear & Better
_	No. 3 Clear
Finish, Casing & Base	Selected Flat Grain
	No. 2 Clear & Better
	No. 3 Clear
Boards and Shiplap	Inch Selected Common
	No. 1, 2 & 3 Common
Dimension, Plank, and Small Timbers	Selected Common
	No. 1, 2, 3 Common
Timbers	•
	No. 1 & 2 Common
Factory Lumber	
•	No. 1 & 2 Shop Common
	Inch Shop Common
	Panel Lumber
Flooring	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Clear Edge Grain
	No. 2 Clear & Better, 3, 4 Clear
	Flat Grain
Stepping	
	No. 3 Clear

¹ Products and grades are given for Louglas fir only. Those for the other species listed differ.

TABLE 22.—GRADES ADOPTED FOR SOFTWOOD LUMBER PRODUCTS BY PRINCIPAL LUMBER ASSOCIATIONS—(Continued)

Product	Grade
Bungalow or Colonial Sidi Tank Stock	No. 2 Clear & Better No. 3, 4 Clear ng
Silo Stock	
	Selected Common
Pipe Stave Stock	One Grade
Ship Plank	One Grade
Ship Decking	One Grade
Mining Timber	One Grade
Railroad Ties	
Car Stakes	One Grade
Pickets	
Lath	One Grade

Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau

1917 Export Rules for Douglas Fir, Western Hemlock, and Sitka Spruce

Product	Grade
Rough Clears	No. 2 Clear & Better
Boards, Dimension, and Timbers	Merchantable
	Common
Flooring	No. 1, 2, 3 Clear Edge Grain
	No. 2 Clear & Better & 3 Clear
	Flat Grain
Ceiling and Rustic Siding	No. 2 Clear & Better
Stepping	No. 2 Clear & Better
Mining Timber	
Railroad Ties	
Ship Plank	One Grade
Deck Plank	One Grade
Pipe Stock	One Grade
Pickets	One Grade
Staves	No. 1 & 2
Lath	One Grade

¹ Products and grades are given for Douglas fir only. Those for the other species listed differ.

Western Pine Manufacturers' Association

1917 Rules for Western White Pine, Idaho White Pine, Engelmann Spruce, White Fir, Western Red Cedar, Douglas Fir, and Larch

Product	Grade
Finishing	B Select & Better
	C & D Select
Siding	
1	C, D & E
Common Lumber	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5 Common Board
	and Strips
Lath	No. 1 Pine Lath
	No. 1 Mixed Lath
·	No. 2 Lath
Tank Stock	One Grade
Factory Lumber	No. 1, 2 & 3 Shop Common
	Factory C Select & Better
	Inch Shop Common
	Short Box
Dimension and Timbers	No. 1
Cribbing	One Grade
Shiplap	
Drop Siding	
Beveled Siding	
Ceiling	
Grooved Roofing	•
Flooring	

California White & Sugar Pine Manufacturers' Association

1916 Rules for Sugar Pine and California White Pine (Western Yellow Pine)

Product	Grade	
Finishing	No. 1 & 2 Clear (or B Sel	ect &
3	Better)	
	C Select	
	D Select	
Siding, Bevel	B & Better	
3,	C & D	
Flooring and Ceiling, Drop Siding	B & Better	
.	C & D	•
•	No. 1, 2 & 3 Fencing	

¹ Pinus ponderosa, U. S. Forest Service name—Western Yellow Pine.

² Pinus monticola, U. S. Forest Service name-Western White Pine.

Product	Grade
Factory Plank	No. 3 Clear (or Factory C Select
	or No. 1 Cuts)
	No. 1, 2 & 3 Shop
	Inch No. 3 Clear
•	Inch Shop
Thick Common	Select Common
Boards and Fencing	
Shiplap, Grooved Roofing, Drop	· •
D & M	
Lath	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

California Redwood Association

1917 Rules for Redwood

Grade

Uppers	Clear
-	Sap Clear
	Select
	Standard
Sundry Commons	Extra Merchantable
	Merchantable
	Construction
	Shop Common
	Inch Shop Common
	Subflooring and Sheathing Stock
Channel Rustic	

Channel Rustic
V Rustic
Drop Siding
Bevel Siding
Battens
Shiplap
Pickets

Product

Northern Hemlock & Hardwood Manufacturers' Association 1913 Rules for Hemlock

Product	Grade
Boards and Strips	Thick D & Better
	Inch Clear & Select
	Inch D Stock
	No. 1, 2, 3, 4 Common
Piece Stuff or Dimension	
Lath	No. 1 & 2
Flooring	
Ceiling	
Shiplap	
Drop Siding	

The various mills originally made their own rules to suit their special conditions. This might have been satisfactory where a mill supplied practically all the lumber used in its vicinity; but as soon as mills with different rules for the same timber began to sell in the same territory there was bound to be confusion and dissatisfaction. As means of transportation grew easier and cheaper and lumber was shipped greater distances from its source, organizations of manufacturers and dealers in different regions drew up rules to enable them to handle lumber in standard sizes and with less misunderstanding as to quality. By the use of such rules, manufacturers could tell more satisfactorily the quality of lumber wanted by dealers, and the dealers in turn could be surer that their orders would be correctly filled. first classified the various kinds of lumber products, such as siding, boards, ceiling, flooring, finishing, dimension, etc., and then specified the size and number of defects, such as knots and checks, allowed in the various grades of each product. first the rules were comparatively simple; but they have been expanded and new ones added to cover special products and the rules for each product further subdivided until pamphlets of 50 printed pages may be required to describe the different grades, sizes, and shapes of the various standard lumber products of one kind of wood. ·

The most common defects specified in softwood grading rules are knots, stained sap, shake, wane, rot, pitch, splits, and seasoning checks. Inspection is usually specified on the better or dressed side. However, factory lumber used for the manufacture of doors, sash, etc., which must show on both sides, is graded from the poorer side. There is a tendency to avoid definite detailed specifications for the different grades, especially in certain of the white pine grading rules, in which only a general description of each grade and numerous examples of pieces that should be admitted are given. In such cases, the grade of each piece may be left largely to the judgment of the inspector.

Standard lengths and widths of softwoods differ somewhat under the various rules and also under different classes of material and grades in the same rules. In some sets of rules standard sizes are not listed completely.

The various lumber products to which grades are given by the different lumber associations generally include finish, flooring, siding, ceiling, boards, timbers, fencing, etc. The methods used

by various associations for describing the grades differ widely. In some rules the letters A, B, C, and D are used to designate grades of material for finish, ceiling, flooring, etc., and the numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4, usually with the term "common," are used for grades of common lumber, boards, dimension, etc. Other rules designate their highest grades of finish as 1, 2, and 3 Clear, either with or without lower grades of finish material designated A, B, C, and D.

DESCRIPTION OF TYPICAL RULES FOR SOFTWOODS

Following is a description of the grading rules of a few of the most important species.

SOUTHERN YELLOW PINE

Southern yellow pine includes longleaf, shortleaf, loblolly, and associated species of minor importance, such as slash and pond pine. The grading rules in common use are as follows:

- 1. Interstate Rules of 1905 and 1916, used principally in the southeastern United States and in Atlantic Coast markets.
- 2. Southern Pine Association Rules, used largely by Gulf State manufacturers for inland trade.
- 3. North Carolina Pine Association rules, used on the Atlantic Coast.
 - 4. Gulf Coast Classification, used in export trade.

Interstate Rules.—The Interstate rules of 1905 and 1916, which are used by the Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association for dimension and timbers, by the North Carolina Pine Association, and by lumber trade associations of the Atlantic Coast, are characterized principally by their simplicity. They are divided into three parts: General Rules, Classification, and Inspection. Seven classes of lumber are given: flooring, boards, plank, scantling, dimension, stepping, and rough edge or flitch; and the sizes are specified under each class. Under Inspection three grades are given: standard, merchantable, and prime. Prime is the highest grade. These grades are based on the number and position of defects and the amount of heart. The 1916 rules differ from the 1905 rules in that they contain a density requirement.

Southern Pine Association Rules.—The Southern Pine Association rules for grades of yellow pine lumber are a revision of the

old Yellow Pine Manufacturers' Association rules. Separate rules are issued for (1) lumber and dimension, (2) timbers, (3) car material, and (4) bridge and trestle timbers. A large number of different classes of products are given, such as finishing, flooring, ceiling, common boards, dimension, etc. The grades are defined under each of these classes. The letters A and B are used to designate the higher grades for finish and planing-mill products, and the Nos. 1, 2, and 3, with the term "common," are used for lower grades of planing-mill products, common boards, and dimension. Figure 103 shows boards of three grades. The requirements of each grade are not the same in the different classes of products; they vary with the sizes and requirements



Fig. 103.—Boards of three grades—Southern Pine Association.

of each class. In general, the material is graded from the face or better side.

Grade A is practically free from defects on one side except in the greater widths. Grade B allows a few minor defects, such as splits, small knots, and pitch pockets. The Common grades allow larger defects and a greater number of them than A and B. No. 1 Common in general allows sound knots not over a certain diameter or smaller defects which do not impair its use; No. 2 Common allows knots not necessarily sound, not more than a certain specified diameter, and other defects if not too large; No. 3 Common allows coarse knots, knot holes, and other defects, if they are not so injurious as to prevent the use of the lumber; No. 4 Common is "defective lumber."

190 TIMBER

The Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association has reprinted the Southern Pine Association rules for lumber and planing-mill products in its rule book and now uses them for these items in place of the Interstate rules.

The Southern Pine Association rules for timbers include the "density" rule prepared for structural material by the Forest Service. This rule requires a proportion of one-third summerwood (the hard, dark colored parts of the annual ring) in the cross section and disregards botanical distinction. The grades given are No. 1 Common, Square Edge and Sound, Merchantable, and Select Structural Material, which is the highest grade. The first three of these grades may or may not include the density rule, the term "dense" being used to specify material conforming to the density rule and "sound" to include material without the density rule requirement. No. 1 Common Timbers are not required to conform to the General Timber Specifications, which exclude injurious shakes and unsound knots; but there are restrictions on the amount of wane and size of knots for different sizes of material. Square Edge and Sound Timbers must be free from wane. Merchantable Timber must have approximately two-thirds heart on the wide faces. The "Select Structural" grade conforms to the Density Rule and also has restrictions, recommended by the Forest Service, as to knots, shakes, checks, and cross grain. Wane is not permitted in this grade. There must be at least 85 per cent. heart measured around the girth anywhere in the length.

North Carolina Pine Association Rules.—The grading rules for kiln-dried North Carolina pine adopted by the North Carolina Pine Association apply to lumber from 1 to 2 inches in thickness. The principal grades are Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 (or Box). No. 1 must be practically clear of defects up to 8 inches in width, except a limited amount of pitch streak; No. 2 grade allows a limited number of small sound knots and other small defects; No. 3 allows larger tight knots; and No. 4, or Box, contains large, reasonably sound knots and other smaller defects. There are also several minor grades which are largely cull and from which merchantable lumber can be cut with a specified maximum per cent. of waste.

The grading rules for air-dried North Carolina pine are the same as for kiln dried except that 25 per cent. sap stain is allowed

for No. 2, 50 per cent. for No. 3, 75 per cent. for No. 4, and 100 per cent. for Culls.

The Shortleaf Pine Plank and Dimension Rules consist of a set of brief general rules defining a single grade for each of these classes of material. They are the official rules of the North Carolina Pine Association and a number of lumber trade associations on the Atlantic Coast.

Gulf Coast Classification.—The Gulf Coast Classification of resawn lumber and sawn timber was first issued by the old Gulf Coast Lumber Exporters' Association and adopted in 1915 by the Southern Pine Association for export trade. Under "Resawn Lumber" the different kinds of lumber are classified as flooring, boards and planks, deals, scantling, dimension, kiln-dried saps, and air-dried saps. Under each class the sizes are given and the grades, which are for the most part as follows: Special or Crown, Extra or French Prime, Prime, Standard or Genoa Prime, Merchantable, and Square Edge. The grades differ as to amount of heart and defects specified, and the same grade differs to a greater or less degree in its requirements in the different classes of material. Two other brief sets of rules are given, "Usual South American or Standard River Plate" and "West Indian." Under "Sawn Timber" are brief rules adapted for use with this class of material. All these rules have high heart specifications in comparison to rules used in domestic trade.

WHITE PINE—EASTERN OR NORTHERN

Eastern or northern white pine (*Pinus strobus*) is sold under two sets of rules. The White Pine Bureau, St. Paul, Minnesota, composed of manufacturers of northern and western white pine, issued in 1917 a book¹ containing the rules of the Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association and the White Pine Association of the Tonawandas, with several photographs of each grade and recommendations as to the use of each grade in house construction.

Tonawanda Rules.—The Tonawanda rules were drawn up by the White Pine Association of the Tonawandas and are used in the Tonawanda wholesale district (Buffalo, Tonawanda, and North Tonawanda, N. Y.) and other eastern markets, principally on material brought by boat from the Georgian Bay District

¹ This book contained also the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers Association.

and northern Minnesota. The rules contain grades as follows: Upper, Selects, Fine Common, Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Cuts, Nos. 1 and 2 Mouldings, Stained Saps, Star or Shaky Clear, No. 1 Shelving and Dressing, No. 2 Dressing, Nos. 1 and 2 Shelving, Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Barn, and No. 1 Box. The large number of grades allows considerable refinement in grading and provides grades especially suited for certain purposes. Common defects specified are knots, sap, sap stain, and shake. Particular uses for which each grade is suitable are given under each grade.

Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association Rules.—The Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association rules are used by manufacturers throughout the Lake States. Under these rules several different classes of lumber are given, such as finishing, siding, flooring, fencing, common lumber, etc., and under each class several grades are given. In these rules, the better grades suitable for finish are designated as 1, 2, 3 Clear and A, B, C Select, etc.; while the grades more suitable for other purposes are indicated as Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Common, etc. The grades 1, 2, and 3 Clear and A and B Select are frequently not sorted but simply sold together as B Select and Better. These rules differ considerably from the Tonawanda rules, so that a detailed comparison is difficult. Examples are given in the rules under each grade to illustrate different combinations of defects admissible. These rules apply also to Norway pine, spruce, and tamarack cut in the Lake States.

DOUGLAS FIR

Douglas fir is commonly graded under three sets of rules, one for rail shipments, one for domestic cargo shipments, and one for export. The rules are issued by the West Coast Lumbermen's Association and the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau.¹ These are separate organizations which coöperate closely. The Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau is in effect the inspection department of the West Coast Lumbermen's Association.

West Coast Lumbermen's Association Rules ("Rail A").— In the "Rail A" rules, there is a division into a large number of classes of lumber, such as flooring, ceiling, finish, common, dimension, timbers, etc., and a number of grades are given under each class. The principal grades are Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 Clear,

¹ A small amount of Douglas fir is also graded by the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association (see Western Yellow Pine).

Select Common, and Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Common. The grade No. 1 Clear, however, is given only in vertical grain flooring and is practically free from all defects. No. 2 Clear admits a few small defects, which vary with the class of material. The "Clear" grades are finish material; while the "Common" grades are intended for other purposes, such as common boards and timbers. Defects allowable in "Common" grades are naturally more serious than those in the "Clear" grades. Grades of the same name under the different classes of material are somewhat similar as to defects allowed. There are often wide differences, however, both as to sizes and defects allowable due to a certain grade of lumber being adapted to particular use.

Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau Rules.—Two sets of rules, Export and Domestic, are issued for the use of cargo shippers. The two sets differ both as to classes of material and grades. There are a few grades, however, such as ship plank and flooring, which are practically the same in both sets of rules.

Export Rules.—Several classes of lumber are given under the Export Rules, such as clears, ship plank, deck plank, flooring, ceiling, siding, etc. Some of these classes have several grades and some but one. Boards are graded as No. 2 Clear and Better (Edge and Flat Grain), Merchantable, and Common. Flooring grades are Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Clear Edge Grain, No. 2 Clear and Better, Flat Grain and No. 3 Clear Flat Grain. Stave grades are Nos. 1 and 2. Other products are manufactured in one grade only.

Domestic Rules.—In the domestic rules, a classification is made into rough clears, commons, factory lumber, flooring, ceiling, siding, etc., and under each class several grades are given, as Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 Clear, No. 2 Clear and Better, Nos. 3 and 4 Clear, Selected Common, and Nos. 1, 2, and 3 Common. These grades usually differ considerably under each of the different classes. No. 2 Clear and Better in general allows a small number of small tight knots and pitch pockets; No. 3 Clear allows a large number of larger knots and pitch pockets. In the "Common" grades larger knots, pitch pockets, colored sap, and other defects allowable in construction material are admitted. Specifications are given for a considerable number of products, such as tanks, cross-arms, silo and pipe stock, ship planks and decking, mining timber, and railroad ties.

WESTERN WHITE PINE AND WESTERN YELLOW PINE

Pinus monticola and Pinus ponderosa

Western (Idaho) white pine and western yellow pine (called western white pine in the manufacturers' rules), larch, and Douglas fir cut in the Inland Empire (western Montana, Idaho, and eastern Washington and Oregon) are graded under the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association. They are nearly the same as the Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association rules for northern white pine; the higher grades of the Northern Pine Manufacturers' rules are omitted, however, and slight changes have been made in specifying defects, so as to adapt the rules to the western species.

The grades designated as "Clear" and "A Select," in the Northern Pine rules, are omitted in these rules, so that "B Select and Better" is the highest grade of material. It admits small sound knots, slight stain, and slight traces of pitch or small season checks. Several examples are given in the rules under each grade for illustration.

Western yellow pine throughout the southern Rockies, the middle Rockies, and the Black Hills is also graded under the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association. Western yellow pine cut in California and sold as California white pine is graded under the rules of the California White and Sugar Pine Association.

SUGAR PINE

Sugar pine in California is graded under the rules of the California White and Sugar Pine Association. The rules are patterned after those of the Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association. The highest grade, Nos. 1 and 2 Clear, is as nearly equivalent to the northern white pine B Select and Better as the timber characteristics of the two regions permit. No. 3 Clear is a cutting-up grade. Other grades are similar to the northern pine grades. California white pine (western yellow pine) is also graded under the California rules. Sugar pine and California white pine are separated in the Clear and Select grades but not in the Common grades which also include white and red fir. The common grades are used largely by California box manufacturers.

¹ See Sugar Pine.

HEMLOCK

Western Hemlock.—In the Pacific Northwest western hemlock is graded under the "Rail A" rules of the West Coast Lumbermen's Association and the Domestic and Export rules of the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau. In each rule the grades are practically the same as the Douglas fir grades; but hemlock products are limited to flooring, ceiling, partition, siding, finish, boards, shiplap, and dimension. With the exception of timbers, western hemlock is made into the same forms of ordinary building lumber and planing-mill products as Douglas fir. fact, in the grade of No. 3 Common for Douglas fir boards, dimension, plank, and small timbers, part or all hemlock is allowed. Douglas fir mining timber may be 15 per cent. hemlock. No. 3 Clear flat flooring and No. 2 Clear and Better ceiling, partition, and siding, 15 per cent. may be hemlock. In No. 4 Clear flooring and Nos. 3 and 4 Clear ceiling, partition, and siding, hemlock in any quantity is permitted.

Eastern Hemlock.—In the Lakes States, eastern hemlock is graded under the Northern Hemlock and Hardwood Manufacturers' Association rules and the Michigan Hardwood Manufacturers' Association rules. Both sets of rules are modeled after the white pine rules used in the Lake States. The two rules differ somewhat but the common grades are similar. Finish has one or two grades. Boards and Strips are graded as Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 Common; and Piece Stuff or Dimension, as Nos. 1, 2, and 3. One rule has a No. 5 Board, the other a No. 4 Dimension. The other products made are flooring, ceiling, shiplap, and drop siding, but no grades are listed.

Hemlock in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania is graded largely by local rules, although Lake States grades are sometimes used in New York. In the local rules the grade "Merchantable" is frequently used and sometimes the grade "Mill Run Mill Culls Out." In West Virginia and North Carolina the Spruce Manufacturers' Association rules are followed to some extent.

CYPRESS

Grading rules for cypress are issued by the Southern Cypress Manufacturers' Association and the National Hardwood Lumber Association.

¹ See Eastern Spruce.

196 TIMBER

The present rules of the Southern Cypress Manufacturers' Association were designed especially for selling to retailers. The finish grades are A, B, and C, A having a perfect heart face. The grades for boards are Select Common, Heart Select Common, Nos. 1 and 2 Common, Box, and Peck. Flooring, siding, partition, and ceiling grades are A, B, C, and D. One grade each is provided for tank stock, switch ties, cross ties, panel stock, shorts, battens, squares, car roofing, car siding, and car lining. The factory grades are Factory Selects and Shop.

The National Hardwood Lumber Association rules for cypress are intended to serve both the retail and factory trade. The grades partake of the nature of both hardwood and softwood rules. The grades for rough lumber are Firsts and Seconds, Selects, Nos. 1 and 2 Shop, Nos. 1 and 2 Common, Nos. 1 and 2 Boxing, and Peck. Dressed finish is graded A, B, C, and D Finish. Siding, flooring, ceiling, and partition grades are A, B, C, and D. In addition there is one grade each for tank stock, car roofing, car siding, car lining, battens, and turning squares.

REDWOOD

Redwood is graded by the rules of the California Redwood Association. The grades are divided into two classifications, Uppers and Sundry Common. Uppers are the finishing grades, and include Clear, Sap Clear, Select, and Standard. The Sundry Common grades are Extra Merchantable, Merchantable, Construction, Shop Common, Inch Shop Common, Subflooring, and Sheathing Stock. Merchantable is not a distinct grade. It is made up of 60 per cent. "Extra Merchantable" and the balance "Construction." The Shop Common grades are for factory use.

These rules are used mostly for western trade, and a somewhat different set of rules is used for eastern trade. However, the eastern rules are not published by the Association but can be found only in price lists and are therefore difficult to refer to. The eastern grades are as follows:

Product	Grade
Finish	Clear, A and B
Ceiling	Clear, A and B
Drop siding	Clear, A and B
Rustic	Clear, A and B

Product	Grade				
Porch flooring	Clear, A and B				
Car siding	Clear, A and B				
Car roofing	Clear, A and B				
Siding (bevel, colonial, bungalow)	Clear, A and B				
Clapboards	Clear and Clear Sap				
Pattern stock	Vertical Grain, Clear, and B				
Factory lumber	Shop				
Squares	Clear and A				
Tank stock	Clear and Select				
Silo stock	Clear and Select				
Pipe staves	Clear and Select				
Boards and dimension	Merchantable and Extra Merchant- able				

The Bigtree or Sequoia, of the same family as redwood, is sometimes cut for lumber, and this is often graded by the Redwood rules.

EASTERN SPRUCE

Eastern spruce is graded in the Lake States under the rules of the Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association.

In the New England States there is no published set of rules in use, but custom has brought about a general understanding of what is "Merchantable" and "Box." Sometimes spruce box lumber in New England is sold round edge mixed with round edge white pine.

In the Adirondacks no published rules are available, but here again custom has made the following grades, which are currently quoted in New York City: No. 1 and Clear, No. 2, No. 3, Mill Run Mill Culls Out, and Mill Culls.

In West Virginia and North Carolina the rules largely used are those of the Spruce Manufacturers' Association, which provide for Firsts and Seconds (Clears), Selects, Dressing (Select Merchantable), Merchantable, Box, and Mill Culls.

SITKA SPRUCE

Sitka spruce is graded under the "Rail A" rules of the West Coast Lumber Manufacturers' Association and the Domestic and Export rules of the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau. The "Rail A" and Domestic rules have the following identical grades for spruce: B and Better finish, Factory Select and Better, Nos. 1 and 2 Shop Common, Inch Shop Common, and Nos.

1, 2, and 3 Box. As these grades indicate, Sitka spruce is used largely by door and box manufacturers. In addition, the "Rail A" list provides for B and Better flooring, ceiling, partition, stepping, car siding and car roofing, A, B, and C bevel siding, Select and No. 1 Common, boards, dimension, planks, small timbers, and one grade each for squares, molding stock, panel stock, ladder stock, piano posts and sounding boards, and airplane stock. The Export list provides No. 2 Clear and Better, No. 3 Clear and Better Shelving, Merchantable lumber and timber, and Merchantable Box.

ENGELMANN SPRUCE

Engelmann spruce is graded under the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association.

TAMARACK AND LARCH

Throughout the Lake States tamarack is graded under the rules of the Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association.

In the Inland Empire (Idaho, Montana, and eastern Washington and Oregon) the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association are used for larch.

SOUTHERN RED CEDAR

(Juniperus virginiana)

Red cedar lumber is usually sold log run, as there are no definite rules established.

WESTERN RED CEDAR

Western red cedar is graded under the rules of the West Coast Lumber Manufacturers' Association and the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau Domestic Rules. The rules covering western red cedar in these two sets of rules are nearly the same. The Bevel Siding grades are Clear A and B. Finish and boards are graded as No. 2 Clear and Better and Nos. 1 and 2 Common. One grade each is provided for bungalow or colonial siding, porch decking, flooring, porch columns, and newels. In the Inland Empire a few grades of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association are used to a very small extent.

SOUTHERN WHITE CEDAR

No standard rule is in general use for southern white cedar. Planking for boats is usually bought under the term "Boat Boards." This is sound lumber in which knots are allowed, provided they are tight. The Navy Department has prepared very satisfactory rules for southern white cedar boat boards.

PORT ORFORD CEDAR

The Domestic rules of the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau provide the following grades for Port Orford cedar: Nos. 1 and 2 Clear (B and Better), Selects, No. 3 Clear, Nos. 1 and 2 Shop, Common and No. 3 Boards, and Dimension. The products graded are boat boards, flooring, ceiling, siding, casing, base, partition, panel stock, shiplap, grooved roofing, and cribbing. The finishing and shop grades are similar to those for sugar pine, California white pine, and Sitka spruce, with which Port Orford cedar competes.

LODGEPOLE PINE

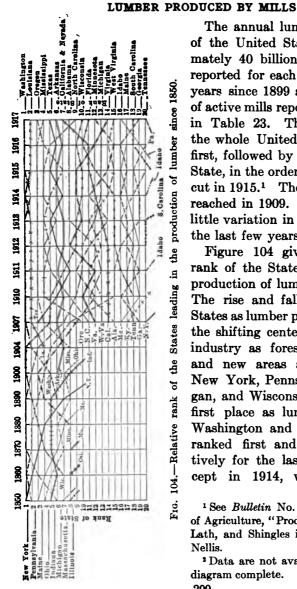
In the Inland Empire the rules of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association are used for lodgepole pine. Very little of this species is graded, however, the great bulk of it being used for mine timbers and local consumption, for which there are no grading rules in general use. In the Rocky Mountain regions it is cut almost entirely by small mills, and no association rules are in general use for such material.

WHITE FIR

White fir, including several firs of minor importance, is sold in California under the common grades of the California White and Sugar Pine Manufacturers' Association; in the Inland Empire it is sold under the common grades of the Western Pine Manufacturers' Association; and in Washington and Oregon it is admitted in the Douglas fir grade of No. 3 Common Boards.

CHAPTER VII

LUMBER PRODUCED AND USED IN THE UNITED STATES



The annual lumber production of the United States is approximately 40 billion feet. The cut reported for each of a number of years since 1899 and the number of active mills reporting are shown in Table 23. The total cut for the whole United States is given first, followed by the cut for each State, in the order of the quantity cut in 1915.1 The high point was reached in 1909. There has been little variation in the total cut in the last few years.

Figure 104 gives the relative rank of the States leading in the production of lumber since 1850.2 The rise and fall of the various States as lumber producers follows the shifting center of the lumber industry as forests are cut out and new areas are opened up. New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Wisconsin all have held first place as lumber producers. Washington and Louisiana have ranked first and second respectively for the last ten years, except in 1914, when the order

200

¹ See Bulletin No. 506, Department of Agriculture, "Production of Lumber, Lath, and Shingles in 1915," by J. C. Nellis.

² Data are not available to make the diagram complete.

was reversed. The large proportion of the total 1915 cut produced in Washington and Louisiana is strikingly shown in Fig. 105, which gives graphically the 1915 cut by States.

The quantity of each kind of lumber cut annually for a number of years since 1899 is given in Table 24. Yellow pine, which

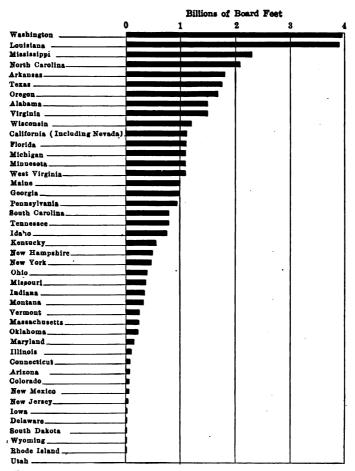


Fig. 105.—Computed total lumber production in 1915, by States.

includes the longleaf, shortleaf, and loblolly pines of the southern States, makes up about one-third of the annual lumber cut. Five species, yellow pine, Douglas fir, oak, white pine, and hemlock, have been the leaders in quantity production for the last twenty

TABLE 23.—TOTAL NUMBER OF ACTIVE SAWMILLS REPORTING, AND

State	1915 (29,951 mills) ¹	1914 (27,506 mills) ²	1913 (21,668 mills)	1912 (29,005 mills)	1911 (28,107 mills) ³
United States	M feet b. m. 437,011,656	M feet b. m.	M feet b. m.	M feet b. m. 439,158,414	M feet b. m.
Washington		3,946,189	4,592,053	4,099,775	4,064,754
Louisiana	3,900,000	3,956,434	4,161,560	3,876,211	3,566,456
Mississippi	2,300,000	2,280,966	2,610,581	2,381,898	2,041,615
North Carolina	2,090,000	2,227,854	1,957,258	2,193,308	1,798,724
Arkansas	1,800 000	1,796,780 1,554,005	1,911,647 2,081,471	1,821,811 1,902,201	1,777,303
Oregon	1,690,000	1,817,875	2,098,467	1,916,160	1,681,080 1,803,698
Alabama		1,494,732	1,523,936	1,378,151	1,226,212
Virginia	1,500,000	1,488,070	1,273,953	1.569.997	1,359,790
Wisconsin	1,210,000	1,391,001	1,493,353	1,498,876	1,761,986
California	\$1,130,000	1,303,183	1.183.380	1,203,059	1,207,561
Florida	1,110,000	1,073.821	1,055,047	1,067,525	983,824
Michigan	1,100,000	1,214,435	1,222,983	1,488,827	1,466,754
Minnesota	1,100,000	1,312,230	1,149,704	1,436,726	1,485,015
West Virginia		1,118,480	1,249,559	1,318,732	1,387,786
Maine	1,000,000	992,594	834,673	882,128	828,417
Georgia	1,000,000	1,026,191	844,284	941,291	801,611
Pennsylvania	950,000	864,710	781,547	992,180	1,048,606
South Carolina		701,540 885,035	752,184	816,930	584,872
Tennessee	800,000 777,000	763,508	872,311 652,616	932,572	914,579
Kentucky		596,392	541.531	713,575 641,296	765,670
New Hampshire	500,000	482,744	309,424	479,499	632,415 388,619
New York	475,000	486,195	457,720	502,351	526,283
Ohio	400,000	286,063	414,943	499,834	427,161
Missouri	350,000	370.571	416,608	422,470	418,586
Indiana	350,000	298,571	332,993	401.017	360,613
Montana	328,000	317,842	357,974	272,174	228,416
Vermont	260,000	249,608	194,647	235,983	239,254
Massachusetts	250,000	143,094	224,580	259,329	273,317
Oklahoma	230,000	200,594	140,284	168,806	143,869
Maryland	165,000	162,097	140,469	174,320	144,078
Illinois	110,000	66,227	102,902	122,528	96,651
Connecticut	90,000	81,883 78,667	93,730	109,251	124,661
Arizona		102,117	77,363 74,602	76,287	73,139
Colorado		57,167	65,818	88,451 82,650	95,908 83,728
New Jersey	45,000	48.748	27,248	34.810	28,639
Iowa		11,443	21.676	46.593	59,974
Delaware		25,517	18,039	28,285	23,853
South Dakota		18,744	19,103	20,986	13.046
Wyoming	17,000	11,852	12,940	13,560	33,309
Rhode Island	15,000	15,902	14,984	14,421	9,016
Utah		8,680	5,403	9,055	10,573
All other States	(6)	715,672	719,461	722,525	711.786

Figures shown are computed totals for 1915.
 Custom mills excluded.
 Includes also exclusive lath and shingle mills reporting (1,500 estimated).
 Mills cutting less than 50 M feet per year excluded.
 Includes cut of two mills in Nevada.

QUANTITY OF LUMBER REPORTED, BY STATES, 1899-1915

1910 (31,934 mills) ³	1909 (46,584 mills)	1908 (31,231 mills) ³	1907 (28,850 mills) ³	1906 (22,398 mills)	1904 (18,277 mills) ²	1899 (31,833 mills)
M feet b. m. 440,018,282	M feet b. m. 44,509,761	M feet b. m. 33,224,369	M feet b. m. 40,256,154	M feet b. m. 37,550,736	M feet b. m.	M feet b. m. 35,084,166
4,097,492	3,862,916	2,915,928	3,777,606	4,305,053	2,485,628	1,429.032
3,733,900	3,551,918	2,722,421	2,972,119	2,796,395	2,459,327	1,115,366
2,122,205	2,572,669	1,861,016	2,094,485	1,840,250	1,727,391	,206,265
1,824,722	2,177,715	1,136,796	1,622,387	1,222,974	1,318,411	1,286,638
1,844,446	2,111,308	1,656,991	1,988,504	1,839,368	1,680,536	1,623,987
1,884,134	2,099,130	1,524,008	2,229,590	1,741,473	1,406,473	1,232,404
2,084,633	1,898,995	1,468,158	1,635,563	1,604,894	987,107	734,538
1,465,623	1,691,001	1,152,079	1,224,967	1,009,783	1,243,988	1,101,386
1,652,192	2,101,716	1,198,725	1,412,477	1,063,241	949,797	959,119
1,891,291	2,025,038	1,613,315	2,003,279	2,331,305	2,623,157	3,389,166
1,254,826	1,143,507	996,115	1,345,943	1,348,559	1.077,499	737,035
992,091	1,201,734	730,906	839,058	888.137	812,693	790,373
1,681,081	1,889,724	1,478,252	1,827,685	2,094,279	2,006,670	3,018,338
1,457,734	1,561,508	1,286,122	1,660,716	1,794,144	1,042,248	2,342,338
1,376,737	1,472,942	1,097,015	1,395,979	976,173	855,889	778,051
860,273	1,111,565	929,350	1,103,808	1,088,747	863,860	784,647
1,041,617	1,342,249	904,668	853,697	831,675	1,135,910	1,311,917
1,241,199	1,462,771	1,203,041	1,734,729	1,620,881	1,738,972	2,333,278
706,831	897,660	560,888	649,058	566,928	609,769	466,429
1,016,475	1,223,849	790,642	894,968	634,587	775,885	950,958
745,984	645,800	518,625	513,788	418,944	211,447	65,363
753,556	860,712	658,539	912,908	661,299	586,371	774,651
443,907	649,606	606,760	754,023	539,259	491,591	572,447
506,074	681,440	781.391	848,894	810,949	581,976	878,448
490,039	542,904	459,259	529,087	438,775	420,905	990,497
501,691	660,159	458,938	548,774	507,084	553,940	723,754
422,963	556,418	411,868	504,790	447,808	563,853	1,036,999
319,089	308,582	311,533	343,814	328,727	236,430	255,685
284 815	351,571	304,017	373,660	329,422	337,238	375,809
239,206	361,200	384,526	364,231	354,483	262,467	344,190
164,663	225,730	158,756	140,015	49,737	32,730	22,104
154,554	267,939	168.534	213,786	219,098	166,469	183,711
113,506	170,181	123,319	141,317	141,374	211,545	388,469
126,463	168,371	137,855	140,011	124,880	69,376	108,093
72,655	62,731	43,287 117,036	72,134 134,239	56,960	55,601	36,182
121,398	141,710			110,212	141,914	133,746
83,544	91.987	79,439	113,204	103,079	81,113	30,880
36,542	61,620	34,930 97,242	39,942 144,271	36,253 163,747	44,058	74,118
75,446	132,021	41,184	50.892	44,487	281,521 30,416	352,411
46,642	55,440	25,859	34,841	22,634	13,705	35,955
16,340	31,057	18,822	17,479	13,213		31,704 16,963
30,931	28,602	30,528	32,855	21.528	7,990 15,398	
14,392	25,489 12,638	15,059	14,690	7,768	12,630	18,528
11,786 712,594	7 15,946	10,627	* 5.891	170	10 23,245	17,548 10 24,646
12,084	. 10,840	- 10,027	- 0.001	. 11(1	20,270	24,040

^{*} Kansas and Nebraska mills reported less than 50 M feet each, and these States are therefore omitted.

* Includes Kansas, Nebraska, and Nevada.

* Includes Kansas and Nevada.

* Kansas.

, ,	1800	M feet b. m. :35,084,166	9,657,676 1,736,507 4,438,027 7,742,391 3,420,673 1,448,091	-	29,715 2614,721
LUMBER REPORTED, 1899-1914, AND COMPUTED TOTAL 1915 PRODUCTION	1904	M feet b. m. 134,135,139	11,521,681 2,928,409 2,902,855 5,332,704 3,268,787 1,303,886	H-21121111 1111111 1	(a) 18,002 496,461
rat 1915 P	1906	M feet b. m. 37,550,736	11,661,077 4,969,843 2,820,393 4,583,727 3,537,329 1,644,987	Emma4466000000000000000000000000000000000	(*) (*) 164,845
РОТЕВ ТО	1907	M feet b. m. 40,256,154	13,215,185 4,748,872 3,718,760 4,192,708 3,373,016 1,726,797	ri .	(*) 46,044 27,734
AND COM	1908	M feet b. m. 33,224,369	11,236,372 3,675,114 2,771,511 3,344,921 2,530,843 1,411,992		(*) 43,332 47,873
899–1914,	1909	M feet b. m. 44,509,761	16,277,185 4,856,378 4,414,457 3,900,034 3,051,399 1,748,547	1 1 401160000044000000	23,733 56,511 62,151
PORTED, 1	1910	M feet b. m. 40,018,282	14,143,471 5,203,644 3,522,098 3,352,183 2,836,129 1,449,912	i i rooonreaamamaa	26,634 45,063 68,428
OMBER RE	1161	M feet b. m. 37,003,207	12,896,706 5,054,243 3,098,444 3,230,584 2,555,308 1,261,728	u www.nonenananananananananananananananananana	33,014 42,836 69,548
KIND OF L	1912	M feet b. m. 39,158,414	14,737,052 5,175,123 3,318,952 3,138,227 2,426,554 1,238,600	1 1 40000040044000011110	22,039 49,468 82,145
OF EACH I	1913	M feet b. m. 38,387,009	14,839,363 5,556,096 3,211,718 2,568,636 2,319,982 1,046,816	400000000000000000000	20,106 30,804 85,366
24.—Quantity	1914	M feet b. m. 37,346,023	14,472,804 4,763,693 3,278,908 2,632,587 2,165,728 1,245,614	ui vioeenna44eendaalee	18,374 22,773 55,624
TABLE 24.—C	1915	M feet b. m. 137,011,656	14,700,000 4,431,249 2,970,000 2,700,000 1,400,000	1,293 9,000	26,486 25,000 47,893
TAI	Kind of wood	Total	Yellow pine. Douglas fir. Oak. White pine. Hemlock.	Jow pine (Joyness Maple (Maple Red gum Chestnut Yellow poplar Red wood Cedar Birch Baes wood Ella Shah (Maple Red Maple Red Ma	Pine Sycamore All other kinds

Computed total 1915 production by kinds of wood. *Includes lumber cut in Alaska.

Not separately reported.

years, and have furnished about three quarters of the total annual cut. Figure 106 shows the relative rank of the various species in the production of lumber for a number of years. The lumber production in 1915 by species is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 107.¹

Table 25.—Reported Production of Lumber 1909, 1912, 1913, 1914, and 1915 Computed Totals, by Classes of Mills

		Mills		Quantity reported	
Class	Year	Number reporting	Per cent.	M ft. b. m.	Per cent.
Class 5: 10,000 M and over per year	1909	888	2.11	19,126,223	43.09
	1912	926	3.19	21,259,274	54.29
	1913	974	4.50	23,211,667	60.47
	1914	867	3.15	20,934,446	56.06
	1915	846	2.82	20,669,746	55.84
Class 4: 5,000 M to 9,999 M per year	1909	783	1.86	5,291,606	11.92
	1912	608	2.10	4,311,063	11.01
	1913	740	3.41	4,303,122	11.21.
	1914	547	1.99	3,910,370	10.47
	1915	453	1.51	3,224,448	8.71
Class 3: 1,000 M to 4,099 M per year	1909	5,443	12.95	10,068,592	22.69
	1912	3,747	12.92	7,009,608	17.90
	1913	3,265	15.07	6,319,753	16.46
	1914	3,291	11.97	6,078,730	16.28
	1 1915	3,191	10.65	6,201,864	16.76
Class 2: 500 M to 999 M per year	1909	6,468	15.39	4,315,636	9.72
	1912	4,420	15.24	2,951,068	7.54
	1913	3,148	14.53	2,049,642	5.34
	1914	4,261	15.49	2,780,184	7.44
	1915	4,198	14.02	2,941,264	7.95
Class 1: 50 M to 499 M per year	1909	28,459	67.69	5,582,738	12.58
	1912	19,304	66.55	3,627,401	9.26
	1913	13,541	62.49	2,502,825	6.52
	1914	18,540	67.40	3,642,293	9.75
	1 1915	21,263	70.99	3,974,334	10.74
All classes	2 1909	42,041	100.00	44,384,795	100.00
	1912	29,005	100.00	39,158,414	100.00
	1913	21,668	100.00	38,387,009	100.00
	1914	27,506	100.00	37,346,023	100.00
	1 1915	29,951	100.00	37,011,656	100.00

¹ The data here shown for 1915 are the computed totals by classes of mills.

² The total for 1909 differs from that shown in other tables because 4,543 mills, cutting a total of 124,966,000 feet, or less than 50 M feet each, are omitted in this table.

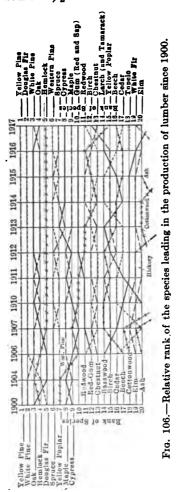
The proportion of the total cut produced by the different sized mills is given in Table 25¹. It will be noted that the largest mills, *i.e.*, those cutting 10 billion board feet and over per year, produced over half the cut in 1915, although they made up less than 3 per cent. of the total number of mills; while the mills cutting from 50,000 to 499,000 board feet per year, produced

¹See Department of Agriculture, *Bulletin* No. 506, "Production of Lumber, Lath, and Shingles in 1915," by J. C. Nellis.

only about 10 per cent. of the cut and made up 70 per cent. of the total number of mills.

LUMBER USED IN THE MANUFACTURE OF WOODEN PRODUCTS

The lumber-working plants, of all classes, consume annually some 24½ billion feet of wood. This is about 60 per cent. of the



annual lumber production. The material is mostly lumber, but includes comparatively small quantities of veneer, bolts, and dimension stock.

The average annual consumption of wood by the wood-working industries in the United States is shown in Table 26.1 The basic data were secured by a series of State wood-using industry studies conducted by the Forest Service in cooperation with State organi-Although the State zations. studies were begun in 1909 and were not completed until 1913, a period of twelve months was made the basis for the statistics for each State, and the final figures for the whole country presented in Table 26 are a very good average of the demand of each industry and of the demand for each kind of wood under normal conditions.

Lumber usually is remanufactured to a greater or less extent before use, and in Table 26 the product of the sawmill is not considered. However, planing mills operated in connection with sawmills manufacture large quantities

of flooring, ceiling, siding, finish, and other patterns which really are finished products, and such material accordingly is included.

¹ See Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 605, "Lumber used in the manufacture of Wooden Products," by J. C. Nellis.

About 40 per cent. of the annual lumber cut is not worked by planing mills or factories into finished products. About onefifth of this (in normal times) is exported, and the rest is used in

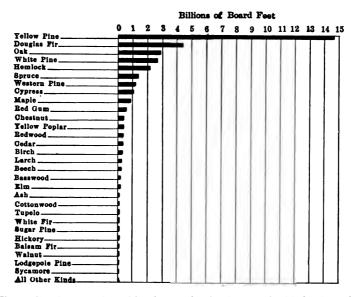


Fig. 107.—Computed total lumber production in 1915, by kinds of wood.

general building and rough construction. Although all construction lumber requires cutting to length to make it fit into place, this was not considered in the class of wood-working industries.

TABLE 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

• •		Kind of wood	***************************************
. Industry	Total	Yellow pine	White pine
All industries	Feet b. m. 24,576,556,564	Feet b. m. 8,610,685,624	Feet b. m. 3,112,698,017
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork. Boxes and crates. Car construction. Furniture. Vehicles and vehicle parts.	13,428,862,066 4,550,016,430 1,262,090,371 944,677,807 739,144,483	6,447,780,805 1,044,993,123 678,114,162 18,926,400 31,205,478	1,543,345,756 1,131,969,940 75,382,166 9,332,808 1,675,277
Woodenware, novelties, and dairymen's, poulterers', and apiaristers' supplies Agricultural implements	405,286,436 321,239,336 289,790,560 280,234,571 260,195,026	18,566,406 98,453,396 20,000 67,000 2,107,994	47,744,797 8,243,440 815,068 25,500 9,394,820
Tanks and silos Ship and boat building Fixtures Caskets and coffins Refrigerators and kitchen cabinets	225,619,686 199,598,228 187,132,848 153,394,557 137,616,266	41,291,700 65,698,652 11,612,365 11,970,650 7,872,931	17,007,600 14,256,006 4,864,150 33,170,942 8,613,186
Matches and toothpicks. Laundry appliances. Shade and map rollers. Paving material and conduits. Trunks and valises.	85,442,111 79,502,040 79,291,575 76,067,000 74,667,997	1,397,000 1,150,000 65,092,000 15,277,990	73,059,611 3,026,870 61,450,000 1,850,000 7,299,500
Machine construction. Boot and shoe findings. Picture frames and molding. Shuttles, spools, and bobbins. Tobacco boxes.	69,459,430 66,240,200 65,477,783 65,148,190 64,127,476	22,461,088 5,498,000	5,405,405 5,812,300 130,000 199,425
Sewing machines Pumps and wood pipe. Pulleys and conveyors. Professional and scientific instruments Toys	59,946,527 55,826,938 35,862,900 35,070,928 28,926,552	65,000 373,230 250,000 46,600	12,524,000 285,000 601,670 2,367,131
Gates and fencing. Sporting and athletic goods. Patterns and flasks. Bungs and faucets. Plumbers' woodwork.	27,450,540 25,191,907 24,299,403 21,112,342 20,313,450	6,765,000 943,000 1,951,447 262,250	3,883,500 805,300 17,854,635 287,000 786,500
Electrical machinery and apparatus. Mine equipment. Brushes. Dowels. Elevators.	18,188,910 16,987,697 12,878,986 11,980,500 10,018,680	1,264,900 1,263,000 3,622,868	3,022,700 239,000 75,000 25,000 1,692,450
Saddles and harness. Playground equipment. Butchers' blocks and skewers. Clocks. Signs and supplies.	9,218,000 9,064,812 8,197,050 7,894,249 6,888,366	1.448.012	10,000 42,000 200,000 476,064 3,266,950
Printing material. Weighing apparatus. Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks. Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms.	5,324,794 5,021,550 4,946,880 2,277,334 2,093,901	337,000 1,180,750	11,550 168,000
Artificial limbs	489,515		

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S.

Kind of wood-Continued

Douglas fir	Oak	Maple	Spruce	Red gum	Hemlock
		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
Feet b. m. 2,273,788,484	Feet b. m. 1,983,584,491	Feet b. m. 919,420,274	Feet b. m. 805,050,195	Feet b. m. 797,343,658	Feet b. m. 708,752,769
1,991,177,352	501,367,772	317,634,231	350,528,295	121,366,583	442,050,165
7,349,840 86,544,784 11,387,790	56,362,111	96,831,648	335,935,643 8,799,060	402,121,640	203,526,091
11.387.790	305,276,814 431,053,289	5,789,298 87,571,456	2,270,500	1,035,640 102,237,867	12,455,379 7,053,446
930,610	212,918,361	35,863,267	835,650	26,650,314	448,678
2,005,175 2,537,250	7,716,860	38,255,880 48,319,210	28,591,148	8,358,296	2,136,522
2,537,250	69,346,130	48,319,210	2,623,500	11,976,000	2,136,522 1,257,400
65,000 247,200	135,269,118 12,458,472	47,264,747 41,238,446	10,000 18,000	8,790,280 6,654,300	216,000 500,000
480,400	20,638,480	45,482,775	29,144,150	9,243,825	615,600
89,705,322 44,342,081	5,042,401 32,382,311	200,000 1,014,167	10,233,500 7,783,980	1,085,000 164,000	1,777,000 4,745,778
5,512,310	62,681,744	20,701,026	2,016,816	5,491,170	473,300
6,000 543,600	7,544,255 31,351,521	110,000 6,375,242	1,700,000 5,555,690	7,010,520 13,483,400	1,985,000 6,934,872
		1,200,000	750,000		
184,500 3,000,000	427,500 294,000	14,219,000 879,925	2,301,000 7,063,000	3,395,000 2,065,200	1,300,000
3,500,000	- 4,500	5,047,000	1,759,850	1,783,005	7,000,000
985,100	8,295,864	3,597,981	729,775	206,500	3,268,191
6,000	3,000 16,043,423	54,050,000 309,150	325,000	7,675,040	
	39,000	13,531,450		270,000	
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	403,200	96,450		6,898,270	
01 251 400	19,106,250	324,148		20,774,280	
21,351,480 129,000	565,800 7,343,500	1,706,000 2,436,000	177,000	3,089,628 19,677,500	200,000
30,000	372,100	4,425,167	16,000 1,300	75,500	
	1,444,057	3,964,400		523,000	241,000
805,000	2,640,700 2,497,559	140,000	1,071,000	150 000	5,152,000 180,000
85,000 54,090	182,200	4,913,815 118,150	191,800 478,238	150,000 1,000	580,600
	182,200 250,000	854,900 388,300	110,000	325,000	
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	14,031,200	l		416,000	
138,000	4,936,000	1,190,650	1,980,700	202,500	257,600
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	4,826,472 90,900	949,200 1,911,897		250,100 284,800	2,328,750
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	77,000	1,354,500		15,000	
415,200	956,200	1,562,262	73,000		1,003,800
130,500	1,248,000	1,450,500		1,078,500	
1,000	2,576,800 12,000	854,000 2,145,050	100,000	30,000 1,750,000	
	2,637,027	80,000		37,000	
36,000	12,000	101,500	10,000	200,000	1,060,000
102,900	272,100 158,000	703,786 451,000	1,820,000	15,000	5,000
	20,000	1,101,100		20,000	
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	405,000	564,500		110,000 345,000	
•••••		147,100			
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	3,500		46,600	12,000	
	0,000	1	20,000		J · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

· TABLE 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

	Kind of wood					
Industry	Yellow poplar	Сургева	Western yellow pine	Birch		
All industries	Feet b. m. 680,936,848	Feet b. m. 668,353,342	Feet b. m. 563,816,810	Feet b. m. 481,293,680		
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork Boxes and crates	236,047,697 165,416,737 32,439,064 53,374,580 48,665,960	508,728,575 38,962,895 1,676,400 3,477,800 1,320,951	264,920,778 288,291,927 4,242,500 1,806,985 182,300	133,867,989 90,787,900 5,830,429 54,677,450 14,227,125		
Woodenware, novelties, and dairy- men's poulterers', and apiarists' supplies. Agricultural implements. Chairs and chair stock. Handles. Musical instruments.	7,278,889 12,412,300 1,140,000 211,900 40,371,925	8,693,450 2,682,000 122,000 70,000	262,500 219,000 30,000	29,547,890 4,704,000 30,114,332 9,908,250 12,349,055		
Tanks and silos. Ship and boat building. Fixtures. Caskets and coffins. Refrigerators and kitchen cabinets.	240,000 448,077 14,574,881 9,640,860 5,985,729	35,408,575 5,014,741 3,364,550 19,157,633 1,700,500	127,000 518,500 961,720 543,500 50,000	1,055,167 15,255,129 191,000 3,628,106		
Matches and toothpicks	500,000 1,026,200 326,000	15,321,300 20,000	5,000	3,575,000 3,876,500 93,000		
Trunks and valises. Machine construction. Boot and shoe findings. Picture frames and molding. Shuttles, spools, and bobbins. Tobacco boxes.	2,988,500 2,208,577 190,000 2,158,814 701,000 7,358,919	1,275,000 15,868,405 451,000 1,559,027	361,000 2,000	71,500 470,406 7,483,000 3,133,700 33,192,000		
Sewing machines	8 030 244	3,000	5,000 8,000	206,000 55,500 745,000 1,062,050 3,123,950		
Gates and fencing. Sporting and athletic goods. Patterns and flasks. Bungs and faucets. Plumbers' woodwork.	5,000 970,200 344,330 8,010,000 819,000	681,040 166,000 74,000 25,000	33,000 136,500 1,200	300,000 983,233 7,000 305,000 2,404,500		
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment. Brushes. Dowels. Elevators.	561,700 86,500 282,265 334,600		7,000 90,000 10,000	804,200 336,075 1,913,000 8,149,000 28,000		
Saddles and harness. Playground equipment Butchers' blocks and skewers. Clocks. Signs and supplies.	85,000			10,000 147,500 240,000 52,044		
Printing material Weighing apparatus. Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms.	150 000	30,000		242,200 675,000 580,000 530,500		
Artificial limbs				353,000 2,000		

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S.—(Continued.)

Kind of wood—Continued							
Hickory	Basswood	Cottonwood	Chestnut	Ash	Beech		
Feet b. m. 389,604,531	Feet b. m. 369,640,782	Feet b. m. 322,642,796	Feet b. m. 298,849,801	Feet b. m. 295,461,482	Feet b. m. 278,203,632		
2,489,288 767,920 1,226,706 843,600 239,491,910	60,557,122 86,979,611 5,148,521 33,146,276 6,418,308	21,428,700 210,519,509 3,037,468 5,158,309 33,278,658	82,267,497 36,216,700 825,074 44,734,180 972,809	21,304,374 10,507,308 18,163,433 15,668,588 43,974,668	58,394,284 77,899,280 1,873,700 21,163,204 5,497,743		
1,567,011 9,860,470 1,192,200 120,294,466 225	58,563,923 7,861,750 1,758,338 2,285,885 10,968,180	13,315,296 15,143,000 126,000 27,000 2,351,000	20,853,100 884,000 5,240,630 10,000 38,125,141	62,635,800 10,677,400 2,765,050 64,156,872 2,377,332	14,101,553 4,968,490 27,187,621 16,691,207 4,186,000		
110,195 26,000 150,000	5,000 959,000 7,114,755 2,728,038 5,221,634	14,026 1,553,351 555,000 4,420,322	15,000 751,295 8,039,595 46,586,629 1,508,753	866,000 7,985,554 2,783,822 20,000 19,066,380	150,000 219,366 1,109,000 787,000		
2,500	5,575,000 4,980,670 702,500	375,000 7,991,500	20,500 460,000	111,500 161,150	9,580,000 362,000		
173,700	21,164,406	1,973,325	562,500	534,435	520,000		
1,113,135 25,000 10,000 872,000	1,155,403 3,599,200 20,340,700 1,947,000 4,206,250	293,000 5,000 1,000 175,000 6,750	272,375 1,314,650	1,404,362 281,845 437,000	711,000 445,000 1,200,595 3,523,500		
925,000	310,000 625,000 2,619,070 8,739,242	326,912 42,000 170 257,000	540,000 120,000 367,000 966,268	975,500 512,100 123,600 895,300	52,500 1,976,000 1,259,600 3,221,506		
4,944,000 6,000	50,000 318,600 123,500 245,000	60,000	5,121,500 222,000 175,200 114,000	700 3,180,000 35,000 536,000	212,000 10,500 850,000		
816,363 125,000 30,500 100	299,000 758,300 167,500 10,000	7,500 50,000 5,000	112,700 854,405 31,500	87,000 43,425 36,400 29,000 145,700	425,000 1,195,525 6,378,894 1,834,000		
12,800 100,000 1,310,000 .	52,000 1,415,000 100,000	100,000	290,000	2,103,000 180,000 20,000	2,658,600 3,083,500 920,000 9,714		
20,500 84,000	352,600 35,000 32,500		255,800	391,000 5,900 30,000 236,984	289,900 335,000 2,822,500 98,350		
40,010	1,000			12,000			

TABLE 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

		Kind of	wood	
Industry	Elm	Tupelo	Redwood	Larch
All industries	Feet b. m. 218,200,988	Feet b. m. 127,958,309	Feet b. m. 122,326,779	Feet b. m. 114,029,275
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork Boxes and crates. Car construction. Furniture	1,221,121 12,154,102 31,296,922	17,003,448 74,982,910 114,168 2,529,000 1,067,600	92,759,519 2,439,500 120,000 355,250 259,000	88,484,081 7,470,300 1,537,669 154,000
Woodenware, novelties, and dairy- men's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies. Agricultural implements. Chairs and chair stock. Handles. Musical instruments.	16,383,426 7,249,000 23,157,586 3,060,307 15,602,440	5,366,900 1,140,000 191,000 460,000		416,700 100,000
Tanks and silos	0.368,275	20,000 138,490 248,000 500,000 39,500	8,124,938 837,500 1,074,710 1,782,000 161,000	9,745,000 328,525 2,000 56,000
Matches and toothpicks	1,365,000	3,842,000 1,006,000 1,050,000	2,000	4,475,000
Machine construction. Boot and shoe findings. Picture frames and molding. Shuttles, spools, and bobbins. Tobacco boxes.	831,000 2,000 43,000	27,500	58,500 47,632	
Sewing machines. Pumps and wood pipe. Pulleys and conveyors. Professional and scientific instruments Toys.	20,000 200,000 200 2,042,055	2,200,000 529,500 639,000 12,000 5,000	31.220	512,000
Gates and fencing Sporting and athletic goods Patterns and flasks. Bungs and faucets. Plumbers' woodwork.	40,000	500	133,000 1,033,200 2,000	48,000
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment	8,800 187,000	3,589,760 1,000 15,000	36,000	
Saddles and harness Playground equipment. Butchers' blocks and skewers. Clocks. Signs and supplies.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Printing material Weighing apparatus Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms				
Artificial limbs				

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S.—(Continued.)

Kind of wood-Continued

Cedar	Sugar pine	Balsam fir	Mahogany	Spanish cedar	Sycamore
				l	<u> </u>
Feet b. m. 102,248,253	Feet b. m. 59,211,298	Feet b. m. 53,262,030	Feet b. m. 50,575,999	Feet b. m. 30,323,441	Feet b. m. 26,052,812
45,187,611 2,512,150 339,487	31,795,077 24,686,000 61,328	10,863,300 40,173,700 700,750	7,336,932 13,000 5,986,198	8,123	1,723,550 16,451,693
339,487 1,856,100 2,500	375,510 6,000	1,000	13,000 5,986,198 15,637,125 516,399	2,500 500	1,474,882 62,600
6,405,470	419,063 50,000	586,880	72,305 500	10,000	607,500 290,000
34,500	•••••		2,455,700 29,000		971,344 156,000
17,500	1,004,400	101,400	8,610,355	7,750	304,600
4,549,400 6,999,722 977,345 5,901,718	10,750 200,500 206,650		1,190,192 5,527,819 1,528,294	27,300	38,000 713,000
· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		710,000	1,528,294 6,800	300	340,000
407,500 4,867,000 5,000 100,000 6,000	2,000 30,000	100,000	5,000		2,000 202,000
100,000 6,000	11,000	25,000	500		5,000
100	4,000		5,885		• • • • • • • • • • • • •
•••••	2,730		171,200		30,000
246,750			161,200	30,203,068	430,000
			91,878		150,000
20,050,000	23,500		84,862		
					91,343
465,500 222,500 265,400	294,350		100,000 271,659	31,500 31,400	30,500
30,000			127,000		
735,000			301,700		
24,000 18,000	3,440		35,300	1,000	74,300
	15,000		1,000		
	10,000				34,500
			204,196		1,600,000
20,000			203,190		
			48,500 4,000		
2,000			45,000 4,000 15,000 30,500		270,000
			6,000		

TABLE 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

•	Kind of wood						
Industry	Black Cherry Feet b. m. 23,988,346 12,047,210		White fir	Willow Feet b. m. 10,664,770			
All industries			Feet b. m. 11,338,580				
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork Boxes and crates	4,606,420 163,250 256,181 1,689,957 390,450	1,674,235 170,500 1,965,570 622,530 39,650	8,162,250 3,142,080 	266,000 10,004,600 40,000			
Woodenware, novelties, and dairy- men's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies. Agricultural implements. Chairs and chair stock. Handles. Musical instruments.	38,547 8,000 263,200 29,050 4,991,808	62,350 300 56,000 617,500 334,180	31,250	128,000 19,000			
Tanks and silos. Ship and boat building. Fixtures. Caskets and coffins. Refrigerators and kitchen cabinets	3,750 660,635 474,000	500 184,976 2,231,750 33,000 7,500		1,000 150,000			
Matches and toothpicks	20,000 2,000	2,000 2,000					
Machine construction. Boot and shoe findings. Picture frames and molding. Shuttles, spools, and bobbins. Tobacco boxes.	125,004	60,500 25,000 10,000 5,000					
Sewing machines	7,796,815						
Gates and fencing Sporting and athletic goodsPatterns and flasks. Bungs and faucets Plumbers' woodwork	41,000 21,500 56,000 10,300	600 165,594 92,400					
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment Brushes Dowels Elevators	26,700	27,800 488,900 10,000					
Saddles and harness. Playground equipment. Butchers' blocks and skewers. Clocks. Signs and supplies.		15,000					
Printing material Weighing apparatus Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms.		2,089,625 7,500					
Artificial limbs		10,000		56,170			

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S.—(Continued:)

Kind of wood-Continued

Dogwood	Noble fir	Magnolia	Buckeye	Persim- mon	Cucumber	Butternut
Feet b. m. 7,518,177	Feet b. m. 6,653,500	Feet b. m. 6,156,500	Feet b. m. 5,486,047	Feet b. m. 3,571,760	Feet b. m. 2,660,700	Feet b. m. 2,310,793
6,000	6,653,500	116,900 5,449,000	694,400 3,174,028		1,415,800 524,000	231,700 578,000 1,300
		477,100 9,500	415,000 63,419	35,000	16,000 3,800	593,500 11,500
34			83,700		650,000 1,100	159,000 10,000 20,546 2,000 98,100
190,230			6,000	7,000		2,000 9 8 ,100
		27,000	10,000 207,500		20,000	78,237 393,600 16,000
			125,000			,
			415,000			5,000
			214,000	413,000	20,000	5,000
7,060,425		75,000		2,909,760		
31,200					10,000	10,000 30,000 10,000
6,000			3,000	206,000		42,710
						14,600
147,288 9,000 1,000		2,000		1,000		
67,000						
			75,000			

TIMBER

TABLE 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

	Kind of wood						
Industry	Red alder	Lodgepole pine	Red fir	Circassian walnut			
All industries	Feet b. m. 2,248,700	Feet b. m. 1,979,500	Feet b. m. 1,854,830	Feet b. m. 1,744,779			
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork. Boxes and crates. Car construction. Furniture. Vehicles and vehicle parts.	436,000	969,500 1,000,000 1,000	524,000 1,328,330 2,500	740,212 1,300 452,040			
_	20,000	8,000		16,820 14,857			
Woodenware, novelties, and dairymen's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies	625,000			8,300			
Handles Musical instruments Tanks and siles				268,415			
Tanks and silos Ship and boat building Fixtures Caskets and coffins Refrigerators and kitchen cabinets.		1,000		25,000 99,050 5,000 500			
Matches and toothpicks Laundry appliances Shade and map rollers Paving material and conduits. Trunks and valises				100			
Machine construction Boot and shoe findings Picture frames and molding Shuttles, spools. and bobbins. Tchacco boxes.							
Sewing machines	5,500						
Gates and fencing. Sporting and athletic goods. Patterns and flasks. Bungs and faucets. Plumbers' woodwork.				25,000			
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment				13,400			
Saddles and harness. Playground equipment. Butchers' blocks and skewers. Clocks. Signs and supplies.	8,000						
Printing material Weighing apparatus Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms							
Artificial limbs							

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S .- (Continued.)

Kind of wood-Continued West Indian boxwood Lignum-Alpine fir Padouk Hackberry Teak Locust vitæ Feet b. m. 952,126 Feet b. m. 1,386,530 Feet b. m. 1,128,000 Feet b. m. 926,969 Feet b. m. 870,412 Feet b. m. 780,000 Feet b. m. 639,228 333,792 441,000 315,000 270,000 500,000 114,245 220,000 723,063 230,100 1,000 31,000 1,690 2,000 110,350 70,000 100,000 593,663 150,000 1,000 2,100 10,000 50,500 3,000 1,500 37,556 70,328 4.000 8,375 85,000 764,309 1,125 215,028 1,000 10,631 785 6,000 2.000 2,500 103,440 72,300 37,236 1,000 234,050 10,000 500 1,600 1,600 2,000 31,350 600 3,140 46,000

TABLE. 26.—AVERAGE ANNUAL CONSUMPTION OF WOOD

	Kind of wood						
Industry	Horn- beam	Ebony	Osage orange	Rose- wood			
All industries	Feet b. m. 608,484	Feet b. m. 528,812	Feet b. m. 520,076	Feet b. m. 471,734			
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork	19,000	50,600		6,100			
Boxes and crates. Car construction. Furniture. Vehicles and vehicle parts.	15,000 126,000	5,450	30,000 1,000 439,026	37,000 15,280 1,100			
Woodenware, novelties, and dairymen's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies	10,000 1,200	1,045	50,000	3,613			
Musical instruments	418,800	4,664 60,373		15,456 49,645			
Tanks and silos		1,800	50	1,600 52,925			
Matches and toothpicks Laundry appliances Shade and map rollers Paving material and conduits Trunks and values				1,000			
Machine constructionBoot and shoe findingsPicture frames and molding.	100			2,420			
Shuttles, spools, and bobbins				100			
Sewing machines. Pumps and wood pipe. Pulleys and conveyors. Professional and scientific instruments Toys.		500		219,353			
Gates and fencing				24,400			
Bungs and faucets				10,642 1,000			
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment. Brushes. Dowels.	21,684	10,100		2,260 12,050			
Elevators. Saddles and harness Playground equipment.							
Butchers' blocks and skewers				290			
Printing material Weighing apparatus Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms		194,150		5,500			
Firearms. Artificial limbs. Pobacco pipes. Airplanes.		9,800		10,000			

BY THE WOOD-WORKING INDUSTRIES OF THE U. S.—(Continued.)

Kind of wood-Continued

Prima vera	Sassafras	Eucalyp- tus	Apple- wood	Cocobola	Yucca	Holly	Laurel
Feet b. m. 380,568	Feet b. m. 360,268	Feet b. m. 338,800	Feet b. m. 320,935	Feet b. m. 279,400	Feet b. m. 172,300	Feet b. m. 86,680	Feet b. m. 72,400
121,973	336,000	4,200	13,800		60,000 3,500	500	1,600
25,350 67,500		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	l		3,500		
67,500	12,000	5,500 40,950	500 1,000			100	13,600
	1,500			2,400	69,000	60,000	4,200
		10,000					
			156,400	210,000			
4,300		1,000		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		3,580	
31,750 129,595	50	273,050 100	1,500	200			47,500 500
129,595	50 10,000 718	100					500
	718				• • • • • • • • •		
100							
				• • • • • • • •			
		4,000				l <i></i>	1
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			300		• • • • • • • • •		
			25,000	64,800	:::: ::::::		
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				• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • •	1,500	
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				2,000	• • • • • • • •	21,000	
					• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
			1,000				
• • • • • • • • • • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · ·			• • • • • • • • •			5,000
							3,000
• • • • • • • • • • • •			121,435		39, 8 00		
			121,485				
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Table 26.—Average Annual Consumption of Wood by the Woodworking Industries of the U. S.—(Concluded.)

	Kind of wood					
Industry	Satin- wood	Koko	Turkish box- wood	Miscel- laneous foreign	Miscel- laneous native	
All industries	Feet b. m. 67,958	Feet b. m. 32,600	Feet b. m. 29,189	Feet b. m. 630,345	Feet b. m. 432,158	
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, blinds, and general millwork Boxes and crates	34,000 288	32,000		106,125	261,750 101,308	
Furniture Vehicles and vehicle parts	22,070			46,580 330	15,650 8,000	
Woodenware, novelties, and dairy- men's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies				•	12,450	
Woodenware, novelties, and dairy- men's, poulterers', and apiarists' supplies. Agricultural implements. Chairs and chair stock. Handles. Musical instruments.	5.100		225 25	985 625	10,000	
Tanks and siles. Ship and boat building. Fixtures. Caskets and coffins.				20,500	1,000	
Fixtures	1,000 5,000	500		17,000		
Matches and toothpicks		100				
Shade and map rollers					:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	
Machine construction			1,575	2,250 40 36,600		
Sewing machines			1			
Toys						
Gates and fencing						
Electrical machinery and apparatus Mine equipment. Brushes.				1		
Brushes Dowels Elevators				1,000		
Saddles and harness						
Signs and supplies	.		.			
Printing material. Weighing apparatus. Whips, canes, and umbrella sticks Brooms and carpet sweepers. Firearms.			25,600 1,731			
Artificial limbs		.		30,000 322,280		

All imported woods used by factories are included in Table 26.

Wood used for lath, shingles, cooperage, veneer, pulp, distillation, poles, and ties is not covered in Table 26.

The scope of the statistics for the industries with titles that are not entirely descriptive is as follows: Planing-mill products cover standard patterns, such as flooring, ceiling, and siding, made in large quantities by planing mills in lumber-producing regions; while sash, doors, blinds, and millwork usually are made in millwork plants in the consuming regions. However, considerable quantities of doors and door stock are made in the producing regions of the Pacific Coast States. Boxes and crates cover all kinds of packing boxes and crates made of lumber or veneer, also fruit and vegetable packages and baskets. Car construction covers wooden construction in all types of railroad and electric cars, as well as in locomotives and mine cars. includes household and office furniture, except chairs, kitchen furniture, and fixtures in business buildings. Vehicles take in horse vehicles, automobiles, bicycles, pushcarts, and wheelbar-Woodenware and novelties embrace a thousand or more articles, such as kitchen utensils, wooden dishes, butter and cheese packages, measures, pails, wooden novelties of all kinds, ladders, and supplies for dairymen, poulterers, and apiarists. Fixtures are such as show cases, counters, bars, and lodge and church furnishings. Shade and map rollers include also curtain and rug poles and venetian blinds. Machine construction means wooden construction in machinery of all kinds. Shoe lasts, pegs, and shanks are boot and shoe findings. Four-sevenths of the wood used for professional and scientific instruments went into pencils, the rest into artists', photographers', and draftsmen's instruments, rules, and scientific apparatus. Billiard and pool tables, as well as gymnasium goods and all outdoor sporting goods, come under sporting and athletic goods. Mine equipment includes ventilating apparatus, brattices, breaker equipment, slope rollers, and sprags. Dowels are small rods used in fastening together furniture, fixtures, and doors. Under playground equipment are included lawn swings and porch furniture.

The kinds of wood are classified according to rather broad commercial practice. The classification is practically the same as that used in the lumber census bulletins; figures on the several species of each family or group are combined under the common name.

Oak, maple, spruce, hemlock, birch, hickory, basswood, ash, elm, cedar, willow, locust, and eucalyptus cover each its different species. Yellow pine includes the southern yellow pines, North Carolina pines, and minor eastern yellow pines. Western yellow pine is listed separately; trade names for it are western pine, western soft pine, and California white pine.

White pine covers both northern and western (Idaho) white pine as well as Norway pine and jack pine.

Cottonwood takes in the cottonwoods, aspen (or popple), and balm of Gilead.

Tupelo includes cotton gum (called tupelo commercially), black gum, and water gum.

Larch includes western larch and eastern tamarack.

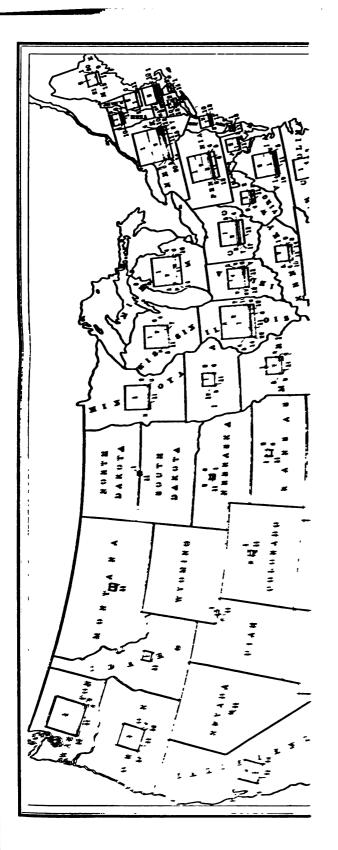
. Mahogany covers all woods sold in this country as such. White fir includes the botanical white fir as well as grand and silver (amabilis) fir. The other minor firs, noble, red and alpine fir. usually sold as white fir, are listed separately.

All other kinds of wood listed are single species, except that cypress, sycamore, cherry, dogwood, magnolia (cucumber, of the magnolia family, is shown separately), and buckeye are family names, but only one species of each is used commercially. Redwood sometimes includes lumber from the bigtree. The red-gum tree yields both commercial red and sap gum and both are covered in Table 26 by red gum.

Figure 108 shows graphically the comparative amounts of wood used by the larger industries in each State.

Amount of Wood Used Annually for all Purposes.—The average amount of wood used annually in the United States for the last few years for lumber and manufactured products has been about 52 billion board feet. This is made up of sawed lumber, ties, mine timbers, wood used for paper pulp, distillation, etc., but does not include fuel, fence posts, and rails. The total amount of wood used annually is estimated at about 100 billion board feet. Table 27 gives the quantities of wood used annually in the United States for various purposes.

¹ Spanish cedar is listed separately.



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LUMBER PRODUCED IN THE UNITED STATES 223

Table 27.—Amount of Wood Used Annually in the United States for Various Purposes¹

FOR VARIOUS PURPOSES ¹	
Industry	Quantity used annually
On the still time and the land	Feet b. m.
Construction timber and lumber	14,484,568,000
Planing-mill products, sash, doors, and general millwork	13,428,862,000
Boxes and crates	4,547,973,000
Ties	4,501,767,000
Mine timbers	2,422,375,000
Pulp	2,154,025,000
Car construction	1,262,090,000
Shingles	1,203,769,000
Furniture	944,678,000
Vehicles	739,124,000
Slack cooperage	655,603,000
Distillation	610,680,000
Lath	543,833,000
Tight cooperage	478,438,000
Veneers	444,886,000
Volicois	111,000,000
Woodenware and novelties	405,286,000
Agricultural implements	321,239,000
Chairs	289,791,000
Handles	280,235,000
Musical instruments	260,195,000
Wusicai matiumenta	200,100,000
Tanks and silos	225,618,000
Poles	204,000,000
Ship and boat building	199,598,000
Fixtures	187,133,000
Caskets and coffins	153,395,000
Refrigerators and kitchen cabinets	137,616,000
Excelsior.	100,247,000
Miscellaneous secondary industries (39) and extract	100,241,000
wood	1,195,110,000
Total (lumber and manufactured products)	52,382,134,000
	•
Firewood	42,968,000,000
Posts and rails	6,000,000,000
Grand total	101,350,134,000

¹ Based on 1912 lumber cut.

INDEX

Character of lumbering industry, 9

Checks and knots or knot holes,

defects, 63

A Agencies that destroy wood, 65 Air dry condition, weight in, 12 wood, crushing strength for, 13 seasoning, 132 Alkaline soils, birds, and sap stain, 70 American Hardwood Manufacturers' Association, 171 American Society for Testing Materials, 71, 72, 73 Amount of wood used annually in the United States, 223 Annual drain upon the forests, 9 growth of wood in the forests, 9 rings, 48 shrinkage as affected by direction of, 128 Average annual consumption of wood, by species, in the United States, 208—220 Average annual consumption of wood by the wood working industries in the United States, 206 Average strength values for air seasoned material compared to those for green material, 54	Bending strength, 123, 124 strength and dry weight, relation between, 47 strength for western hemlock, 27 test, 16 Bending tests, effect of casehardening upon the moisturestrength curve, 31 Boards, badly warped, 132 Boiling process, effect of, 38, 39 Borers, fungi, and insects, 65 Botanical and common names, 11 Boxes, nailed, wirebound, and dovetailed, results of compression tests, 99 packing, 97 wirebound, 106 Box-testing machine, revolving drum, 103 Box woods, classification of, 105 species for, 105, 106 Brashness, 132 Buggy shafts, oak and hickory, 112 summary of tests on, 114 spokes, hickory, grades for, 108, 111 tests on, 111 method of testing, 108 spoke-test chart, 110 Buildings, deterioration in, 70
04	buildings, deterioration in, 70
of green structural timbers,	
44	
Axe handle attacked by powder	C
post borers, 68	
	Carehardening 120
Axles, maple and hickory, strength	Casehardening, 129
of, 115	Causes of decay, 63
-	Characteristics affecting decay in
В	timber, 60
	the strength of timber, 46

Checking, 129

Beam at completion of test, failure

Bending, method of testing small

beams in, 18

in horizontal shear, 57

Classification of box woods, 105 defects in structural timbers, 73 knots, according to form, 75 knots, according to quality, 74 species, 222 Cleavability test, method of making, 24 Collapse, 131, 133 Common and botanical names, 11 of species (table 3) facing page 10	Defects, knots, checks, and shakes, 56 knots or knot holes and checks, 63 knots, stained sap, shake, wane, rot, pitch pockets, splits and seasoning checks, 162 Density, 46 or dry weight, 14 "Density rule," so called, 72 Deterioration in buildings, 70 Direction of grain, 50
Compression and drop tests of	Displacement of water, method of
packing boxes, 97	determining volume by, 25
parallel to grain, 19 relation between the crushing	Douglas fir and couthern pine culti- vator poles, 119
strength and moisture, 29	Drainage under lumber piles, 141
perpendicular to grain, 13, 20	Drop tests and compression of
Concrete as foundation material, 140	packing boxes, 97
Conifers, common and botanical	Dry kilns, preliminary treatments,
names of (table 3) facing	156
page 10	rot, 63
Consumption of wood by species,	weight, moisture per cent. based
208-220	on, 28, 29
Cross arms, method of testing, 94	Drying, kiln, 150
results of tests on, 96	lumber, conditions suitable for,
test devised by the Forest	157
Service, 93	theoretical conditions in kiln,
Cross section of loblolly pine beams,	159
longleaf pine tree, 55	maximum rate of, 158 process of, 156
timber, 76	temperature of, 159
Crossties, poles and sawed timbers,	Durability and strength, 73
135	
Crushing strength and moisture, 27	${f E}$
for air dry wood, 13	
for green wood, 13	Effect of absorption of water, 126
for western hemlock, 27	boiling process, 38, 39
tests, results of, 27	casehardening upon the form
Cubic foot weight, 11	of moisture, strength in
Cultivator poles, Douglas fir and	bending tests, 31
southern pine, 119	moisture, 27
summary of tests on, 122	on strength, 52
D	preservative treatment, 36, 37
-	and conditioning treatments,
Decay, causes of, 63	30
in timber, 65	Effect of steaming process, 40 various treatments on small,
characteristics affecting, 60	clear sticks, 41
Deductions from tests, 42 of vehicle parts, 121	varying degrees of moisture, 28
or venicle parts, 121	. varying degrees or moisture, 20

Elasticity, modulus of, 14 Elastic limit, fiber stress at, 13 Evaporation, rate of, 157

F

Failure due to spiral grain, 53 in horizontal shear beam at completion of test, 57 of nailed boxes, 100 Fiber saturation point and shrinkage, 126 stress at elastic limit, 13 Fir, Douglas, tests on, 31 Flat or horizontal piling of lumber, 138 "Forest growth" and "second growth," 121 Forest regions of the United States, 1, 2 Forests, annual drain upon, 9 growth of wood in, 9 hardwood, 3 regional, 3 Foundation material, concrete as, 140 Fruiting body of wood-rotting fungus, 66

F

Fungi, insects, and borers, 65

Fungous growth, surface, 66
Fungus, spread of, by contact, 67

G

Graded lumber, manufacture and distribution of, 164
Grades adopted for hardwood lumber products, 166
softwood lumber products, 178
Grades used for softwood lumber, 178
cypress, 181
Douglas fir, Sitka spruce, western red cedar, and western hemlock, 182, 183

Grades used for softwood lumber, Douglas fir, western hemlock, and Sitka spruce, 184 Engelmann spruce, white fir, western red cedar, Douglas fir, and larch, 185 hemlock, 186 kiln dried North Carolina pine, 179 lumber and planing mill products, 179 northern white pine, spruce, and tamarack, 180 Port Orford cedar, 183 redwood, 186 sugar pine and California white pine, 185 western white pine, Idaho white pine, 185 white pine, 180 yellow pine, 178, 179 Grading of lumber by manufacturers' associations, 162 structural timbers, 71 rules used for softwood lumber, 188-199 various, 77 Grain, compression parallel to, 19 perpendicular to, 13, 20 direction of, 50 spiral, 51 in Sitka spruce, 53 or diagonal, 52 Gravity, specific, 12 Green wood, crushing strength for, 13 structural timbers, average strength of, 44 Growth of wood, annual, in forests,

н

Hardness, 14 .
method of making test for, 21
Hardwood associations, 165
Hardwood Manufacturers' Association of the United
States, 165, 168, 175

Hardwood associations. National Hardwood Lumber Association, 165, 166, 172 National Wholesale Lumber Association, 165, 166 Hardwood lumber grading, 165 number of grades, 171 Hardwoods, common and botanical names (tables 3), facing page, 10 Heartwood and sapwood, 55 Hickory buggy spokes, grades for, 108, 111 toughness of, 123, 124 wagon axles after test, longsleeved skein trussed, 117 thimble skein, 117 Honeycombed oak timbers, 131 T

Industries, miscellaneous, 208-220 using wood, 223 Insanitary method of handling piling sticks, 144 mill yard, 143 Insects, fungi, and borers, 65 wood-boring grubs, powder post borers, white ants, 67

K

Kiln, conditions in during a run, 158 Kiln dried lumber, 160 Kiln dry condition, weight in, 12 drying, 150 Kilns, types of, 151 compartment, 151, 154 spray, 153 progressive, 151, 152 blower, 152

L

Life of untreated wood species, 62 Loblolly-pine beams, cross section of, 49 Longleaf-pine, cross section of, 55

Lumber, dried, storage of, 160 grading, principles of, 162 rules for, 164 softwood, 178 kiln dried, 160 manufacture of in United States, manufacturers' associations, principal, 163 piled lengthwise on wooden foundation, 139 piled sidewise on concrete and metal foundation, 139; so as to form "chimney," 147 piles, drainage under, 141 piling, dimension of stack (endwise or sidewise piling), 146 (endwise piling), 145 foundations (endwise or sidewise piling), 145 roof protection (endwise or sidewise piling), 146 (sidewise piling), 145 spacing stacks (endwise or sidewise piling), 146 stickers (endwise or sidewise piling), 146 sun shields used to reduce checking, 147 treated ends (endwise or sidewise piling), 146 produced and used in the United States, 200 by mills, 200 production, computed total in 1915, by kinds of wood, 207 States, 201 quantity of each kind reported, 1899-1915, 204 quantity reported and total number of active sawmills reporting by States, 1899-1915, 202, 203 relative rank of States leading in production of since 1850,

200

Lumber, relative rank of species leading in production since 1900, 206 reported production of 1909, 1912-1915 computed totals by classes of mills, 205 "round edge," 164 sawed, 138 used in the manufacture of wooden products, 206 yard of a sawmill in the Lake States, 149 Lumbering industry, character of, 9

M

Manufacture and distribution of graded lumber, 164 of lumber in the United States, 8 Manufacturers' associations, grading of lumber by, 162 Maple and hickory wagon axles, 115 wagon axles after test, 116, 117 Marine borers, 69 Maximum load, work to, 14 rate of drying, 158 Mechanical properties of wood, 10, 15 Method of conducting drop test in boxes, 101 cutting and marking test material, 32 determining moisture content of wood, 24 specific gravity of wood, 25 volume by displacement of water, 25 making cleavability test, 24 making shearing test, 22 making test for hardness, 21 making test in tension at right angles to grain, 23 testing cross arms, 94 buggy spokes, 108 poles, 89 small beams in bending, 18 wagon axles, 113

wagon poles, 118

drying, 155 test, 15 treatment, boiling process, 33 steaming process, 33 Mills, lumber produced by, 200 Miscellaneous industries, 208-220 wood products, 221 Modulus of elasticity, 14 rupture, 13 Moisture and crushing strength, 27 condition of structural timbers, content and cross section, relation between, 127 composite curve of, 160 for several woods, 29 of wood, method of determining, 24 effect of, 27 effect of various degrees of, 28 per cent. based on dry weight, Mushroom on a rotten log, 66

Methods of piling lumber for kiln

N

Nailed, wirebound, and dovetailed boxes, 97 Names of species, common and botanical (table 3), facing page 10 Natural and treated stringers, strength and stiffness of, 34 0

Oak and hickory buggy shafts, 112 Oak, southern pine, and Douglas fir wagon poles, 118 Oak timbers, honeycombed, 131

. P

Packing boxes, 97 Packing boxes, method of conducting diagonal compression test, 98

Piling lumber for kiln drying, methods of, 155 flat or horizontal, 138 rules for, 145 type of permanent foundation for, 141 Pith, position of, in cross section, 60 Pole drying lumber, 148 framework used to dry lumber, 149 Poles, results of tests on, 90 species tested for, 90 Powder post beetle, 68 Preservative treatment, effect of, 36, 37 Products, miscellaneous wood, 221 Properties of various woods (table 3), facing page 10 Properties, mechanical, of wood, 10,

Q

Quantity of each kind of lumber reported, 1899–1915, 204 Quantity of lumber reported and total number of active sawmills reporting by States, 1899–1915, 202, 203

R

Rate of evaporation, 157 growth, 50 Redwood boards, bulge and collapse, 133 Regions, forest, 1, 2 Relation between amount of compression and crushing load, bending strength and drv weight (fig. 23), facing page, 46 bending strength and weight, 47 crushing strength and moisture in compression parallel to grain, 29 moisture content and cross section, 127

Relations indicated by tests, 14 Resawed sections cut from casehardened red-gum boards, 130 Resin in wood, 65 Results of crushing tests, 27 shearing tests, 58 tests on cross arms, species tested, 96 North American woods, 10 poles, 90 Revolving drum machine for testing boxes, 102 Right angles to grain, method of making test in tension at, 23 Rotting pine, 65 "Round edge" lumber, 164 Rules, comparison of grading, 170 Rules for piling lumber, 145

8

Rupture, modulus of, 13

Sapwood and heartwood, 55 Sawed lumber, 138 Sawed timbers, poles and crossties, 135 Sawmill products, grading of, 71 Seasoning chestnut poles, 137 Douglas fir timbers, 137 hardwood ties, 136 hemlock ties, 135 how wood may be injured in, 129 longleaf pine timbers, 138 methods, importance of proper, northern white cedar poles, 137 northwestern ties, 134 objects of, 125 southern white cedar poles, 136 southwestern ties, 134 ties, 135 western red cedar poles, 136 wood, 125 "Second growth" and "forest growth," 121 Shakes, knots, and checks (defects), 56

Shearing strength, 14 Softwoods, Douglas fir, 192 Pacific Lumber Inspection Shearing stresses, calculated, 59 test, method of making, Bureau rules, 193 tests, result of, 58 West Coast Lumbermen's Association rules ("Rail A") Shipworms (mollusks, zylotrya, and teredo). 69 192 Shrinkage as affected by direction of Eastern spruce, 197 annual rings, 128 Northern Pine Manufacturers' Association rules, 197 and fiber saturation point, 126 Spruce Manufacturers' Asper cent. of, 12 sociation rules, 197 Softwood Associations, 178 Engelmann Spruce, 198 California Redwood Association, Western Pine Manufacturers' 186 Association rules, 198 Hemlock, western and eastern, California White and Sugar Pine Manufacturers' Association, 185 Michigan Hardwood Manu-Georgia-Florida Sawmill Assofacturers' Association rules, 195 ciation, 179 Northern Hemlock and Hard-North Carolina Pine Association, 179 wood Manufacturers' As-Northern Hemlock and Hardsociation rules, 195 wood Manufacturers' As-Pacific Lumber Inspection sociation, 186 Bureau rules, 195 Northern 'Pine Manufacturers' Spruce Manufacturers' As-Association, 180 sociation rules, 195 Pacific Lumber Inspection West Coast Lumbermen's As-Bureau, 183, 184 sociation rules, 195 Southern Cypress Manufactur-Lodgepole pine, 199 ers' Association, 181 Western Pine Manufacturers' Southern Pine Association, 72, . Association rules, 199 73, 178 Port Orford cedar, 199 West Coast Lumbermen's Asso-Pacific Lumber Inspection ciation, 182 Bureau Domestic rules, Western Pine Manufacturers' 199 Association, 185 Redwood, 196 White Pine Association of the California Redwood Associa-Tonawandas, 180 tion rules, 196 Softwood lumber grading, 178 Sitka spruce, 197 products and grade, 178-186 Pacific Lumber Inspection Softwoods, general character of Bureau rules. 197 rules for, 178 West Coast Lumber Manugrading rules used for, 188 facturers' Association rules. Cypress, 195 197 National Hardwood Associa-Southern red cedar (Juniption rules, 195 erus virginiana), 198 Southern Cypress Manufac-Southern white cedar, 199 turers' Association rules, Department Navy rules, 195 199

ciation rules, 188, 190 Stiffness and strength of small pieces, 35 rules, 188 For western hemlock, 27 Sugar pine, 194 California White and Sugar Pine Association rules, 194 Tamarack and larch, 198 Stiffness and strength of small pieces, 35 for western hemlock, 27 Storage of dried lumber, 160 Strength and durability, 73 stiffness of natural and treated stringers, 34
Northern Pine Manufactur- bending, 123, 124
ers' Association rules, 198 effect of moisture on, 52
Western Pine Manufacturers' of dry hickory, 123
Association rules, 198 maple and hickory axles, 115
Western red cedar, 198 small, clear pieces, 15 Pacific Lumber Inspection wood, 10
Bureau Domestic rules, 198 wooden products, 43
West Coast Lumber Manu- or mechanical properties of
facturers' Association rules, timber, 72
198 shearing, 14
Western Pine Manufacturers' Stress strain diagram for bending Association rules, 198 test, 16
Western white pine and western Stringers, modulus of elasticity
yellow pine, 194 (stiffness), 36
Western Pine Manufacturers' rupture (bending strength), 36
Association rules, 194 small pieces cut from, 39
White fir, 199 Structural material, vertical grained,
California White and Sugar 60 Pine Association rules, timbers, grading of, 71
199 moisture condition of, 61
Western Pine Manufacturers' strength of, 43
Association rules, 199 tests of, 70 working stresses White pine, eastern or northern, permissible for, 87
191 Stumpage, estimates, 5
Northern Pine Manufactur- Summary of grading rules, 172-178
ers' Association rules, 192 of tests on buggy shafts, 114
Tonawanda rules, 191 cultivator poles, 122
Southern yellow pine, treated, tests wagon poles, 120
on, 31 Summerwood, 14, 48, 72 Specific gravity, 12
of wood, method of determin- ing, 25
Spiral grain, 51 Telephone poles, 88
failure due to, 53 Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga taxi-
in Sitka spruce, 53 folia), 88
Spiral grain or diagonal grain, 52 Engelmann spruce (Picea engel-
Springwood, 48 manni), 88

Telephone poles, Lodgepole pine (Pinus contorta), 88 Northern white cedar (Chamæcyparis thyoides), 88 Western hemlock (Tsuga heterophylla), 88 Western red cedar (Thuja plicata), 88 Temperature, humidity, and moisture in wood, 158 of drying, 159 Test, bending, 16 Test material, method of cutting and marking, 32 methods of, 15 Testing poles, method of, 89 Tests of structural timbers, 70 wirebound boxes, 107 on commercial material, 58 Douglas fir, 31 hickory buggy spokes, 111 nailed boxes, 104 structural timbers, telegraph poles, cross arms, packing boxes, and vehicle parts, 43 treated southern yellow pine. 31 relations indicated by, 14 Ties, seasoning, 135 Timber, characteristics affecting the strength of, 46 estimated stand in United States, 6 resources of the United States, 1 standing, estimates, 3 strength or mechanical properties of, 72 supply of, 1 Toughness of hickory, 123, 124 Treatments, conditioning and preservative, effect of, 30

Various grading rules, 77
Chesapeake and Ohio Railway
Company, 77
Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company, 80

Various grading rules, Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad Company, 80 Chicago Great Western Railroad Company, 78 Georgia-Florida Sawmill Association, 82 Grand Trunk Railway System, Illinois Central Railroad Company, 81 Interstate rules of 1916, 85 National Board of Fire Underwriters, 82 Panama Canal, 82 Pennsylvania Railroad Company, 80 West Coast Lumbermen's Association, 84 Vehicle parts, deductions from tests of, 121 wooden, 107 Vertical grained structural material,

W

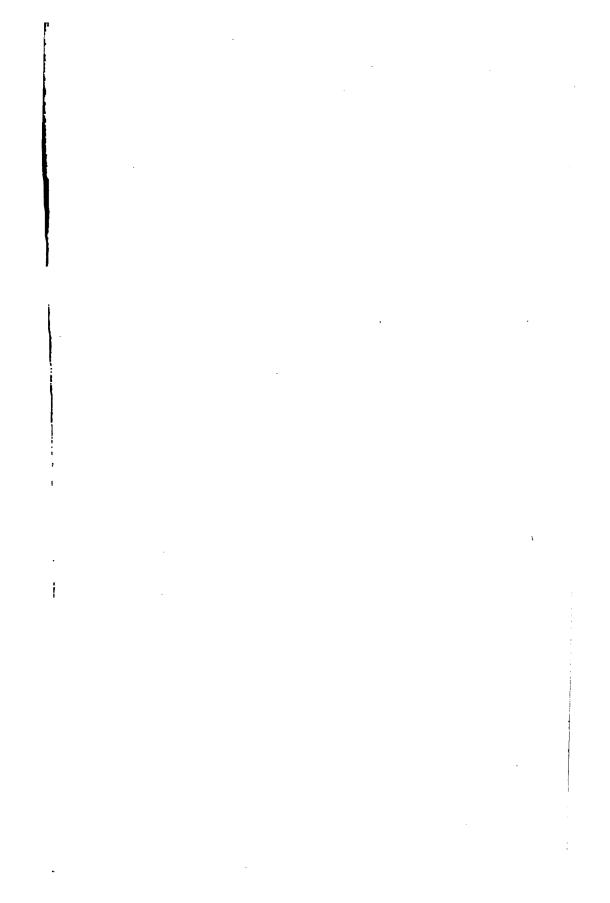
Wagon axles, maple and hickory, 115 method of testing, 113 poles, Douglas fir, oak, and southern pine, 118 method of testing, 118 summary of tests on, 120 Warped boards, 131, 132 Water, effect of absorption of, 126 Weight in air dry condition, 12 kiln dry condition, 12 per cubic foot, 11 Western hemlock, bending strength, crushing strength, and stiffness for, 27 Wirebound boxes, 106 tests of, 107 Wood, agencies that destroy, 65 annual growth of in forests, 9 average annual consumption of. by wood working industries in United States, 206

Wood, boring insects, white ants or termites, black ants, and carpenter bees, 68

Wood lice (crustaceans, limnoria, chelura, and sphæroma), 69

Wood rotting, fungus fruiting body of, 66

Wood untreated, life of species, 62
Wooden products, lumber used in
the manufacture of, 206
strength of, 43
vehicle parts, 107
Work to maximum load, 14
Working stresses permissible for
structural timbers, 87



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